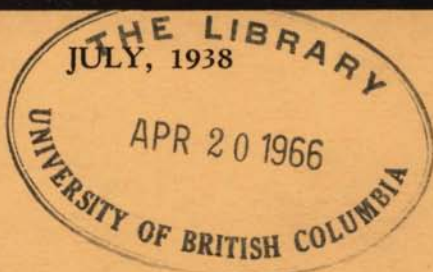


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Vol. I



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JULY, 1938

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Table of Contents

	PAGE
The Kola Peninsula: Gibraltar of the Western Arctic, <i>by Wm. O. Field, Jr.</i>	3
Dostoevski in Soviet Russia, <i>by Ernest J. Simmons</i>	22
Planned Soviet Prices, <i>by Henry Ware</i>	31
General Aims of Soviet Education, <i>by William H. Johnson</i>	42
Reinhold Glière, <i>by Nicolas Slonimsky</i>	52
BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES	
Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin	57
Konstantin Sergeevich Stanislavsky	58
APPENDIX	
Soviet Foreign Trade Statistics for 1937	62
Recent Appointments	66
New Theatrical Productions	66
New Plays for Children	67
New Operas and Ballets	67
NEWS CHRONOLOGY—	
March, April, May—1938	
INTERNAL AFFAIRS	68
Administration, Agriculture, Arctic, Art, Aviation, Campaign against Wrecking and Espionage, Defense, Education, Science, Transportation, Miscellaneous.	
FOREIGN AFFAIRS	73
Consulates, Far Eastern Affairs, Foreign Trade, United States, Miscellaneous.	

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THE KOLA PENINSULA

Gibraltar of the Western Arctic

By

WM. O. FIELD, Jr.

Nowhere has man's progress northward across the Arctic Circle been more pronounced than on the Kola Peninsula, situated at the northwestern extremity of the Soviet mainland. Three inter-related factors combine to give the Kola Peninsula its present importance: its location on the USSR's Arctic route to the Atlantic and at the western gateway to the Northern Sea Route; its economic importance, due to the presence of rich natural resources; and its strategic value should the USSR become involved in a war with a Western power.

The countries of Europe which desire to enlarge their respective territories and thereby gain access to new supplies of raw materials, have indicated that expansion is likely to be at least partly at the expense of the Soviet Union. In *Mein Kampf*, Hitler wrote: "When we talk of new lands in Europe, we are bound to think first of Russia and her border States."¹ Such aims would support the professed national dream of several European countries to weaken and dismember the USSR by slicing off peripheral sectors. The rich Ukraine, the Caucasus and Leningrad have most often been mentioned in this respect but now the Kola Peninsula and Karelia should also be included. Not only does this region contain rich natural resources coveted by countries lacking them, but control of the Kola Peninsula would close the Soviet Union's northern trade route to the west and would effectively dominate most of the western Soviet Arctic.

1. Hitler, Adolf, *My Battle*, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1937. p. 281.

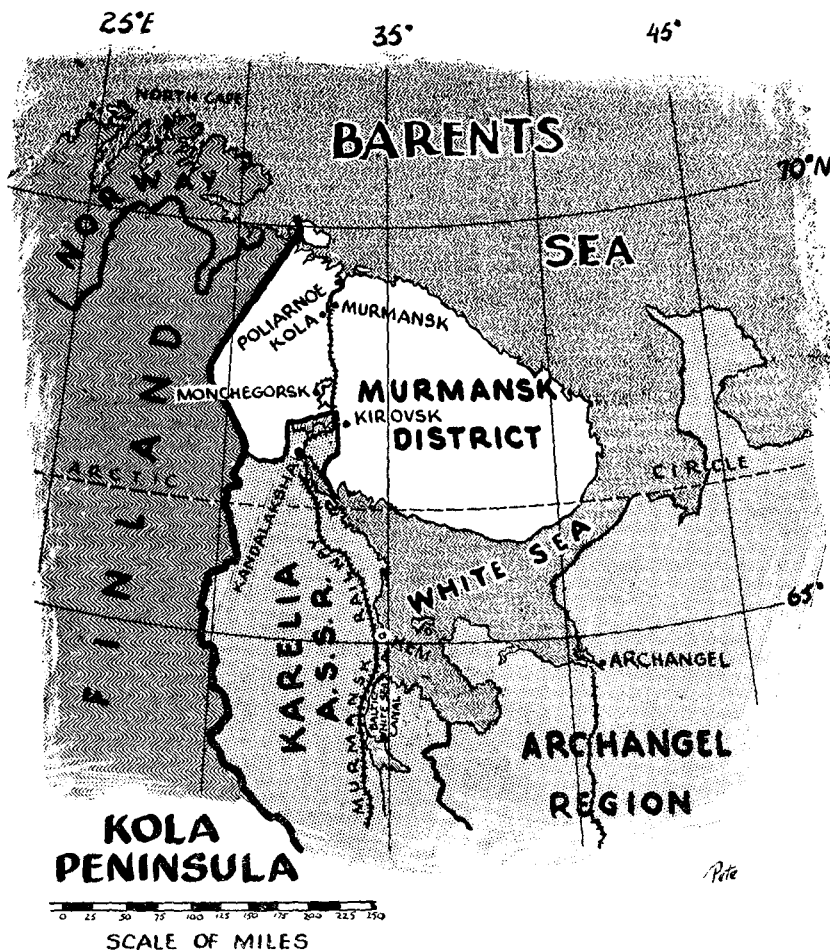
Geographical Features

The Kola Peninsula, once known also as Russian Lapland, forms the eastward extension of Scandinavia. Its area of approximately 50,000 square miles is the same as that of England or the State of New York. Although nearly the entire peninsula is north of the Arctic Circle, the climate of only the northeastern portion can be classed as definitely Polar. In general, there is a short somewhat raw summer, during which there is a period of continuous daylight, lasting up to several weeks in the northern sections. The winter is long and marked by periods of twilight and darkness, but it is not nearly so severe as in parts of Siberia, much farther south. The northern coast, called the Murman, is high and rugged with a number of well-protected harbors. Back of this is an extensive area of prairie or tundra merging southward into the Khibin mountains which reach 3,800 ft. in elevation. Along the southern coast is a low forested area.

The dominating feature which has made the Kola Peninsula important commercially is the fact that the Murman coast is navigable throughout the year. A branch of the Gulf Stream drift rounds the northern end of Scandinavia so that enough warm water flows along this coast to keep it practically ice free even in mid-winter. This makes possible a year-round water route between northeastern Europe and the North Atlantic. Thus, while the ports of Leningrad on the Baltic and Archangel on the White Sea, 600 and 300 miles farther south respectively, are closed by ice for several months each year, the port of Murmansk, 150 miles north of the Arctic Circle, remains open. Compared to the Baltic and Black Seas with their narrow outlets, this route has the additional advantage of being in an open sea and therefore more difficult to blockade. Furthermore, the recent construction of the Baltic-White Sea Canal provides a direct summer passage to Leningrad which will eventually be linked with the central and southern Russian waterways by the Volga-Baltic Sea Canal now under construction.

Historical Survey

As early as the 15th century Russia gained control of the Kola Peninsula with its few thousand Lapps, living with their



reindeer in a semi-nomadic fashion. In the 16th century during the wars between Sweden and Russia, the former attempted without success to seize and then to annex the peninsula. In the middle of the century with the establishment of trade between England and Russia, by way of the White Sea, the Kola Peninsula began to play a more important role internationally.

Peter the Great recognized the political and commercial importance of the North and undertook to spur its commerce, industries and shipping trade. However, with the opening of the Baltic 'window' to Europe, the northern trade route be-

came of less importance and the Kola Peninsula remained undeveloped. During the 18th century, it was still one of Russia's back doors and accordingly figured in a small way in both the Napoleonic and Crimean Wars. In 1809 British men-of-war destroyed Ekaterina Harbor and again in 1855 they bombarded and almost destroyed the town of Kola.

Beginning in the 16th century, Russia maintained its influence over the Kola Lapps and won their allegiance from Norway largely through the efforts of the Russian Orthodox Church. The region as a whole, however, remained undeveloped until the 20th century. In the year 1582, Kola had over 300 houses and nearly 1900 inhabitants while three centuries later, in 1880, it had shrunk to about 80 houses and huts with about 500 inhabitants. This was due mostly to the lack of transportation facilities and regular communication with Russia. Fishing was the principal occupation and source of revenue in the region but, considering its potentialities, was poorly developed.

In 1894 the Russian Imperial Minister of Finance visited the Murman coast and became convinced of its political and economic importance. The governor of the Province of Archangel which included the Kola Peninsula wrote, "A superficial observer of the local conditions and needs . . . could hardly fail to note the state of complete stagnation in which the economic and industrial life of this enormous region has long endured. And yet, from its geographical position and natural riches, it possesses resources that might not only promote and develop the prosperity of its own inhabitants, but even contribute to the welfare of the whole Russian Empire."²

The foresight and vision of such officials produced changes and improvements, though these fell far short of being adequate. In 1896 a telephone and telegraph line was completed to Kola and along the Murman coast to the Norwegian frontier. A railroad route to Kola was also surveyed but no further action taken till the World War. Shipping was improved and an attempt was made to build a more adequate port than Kola at Ekaterina Harbor at the lower end of the Gulf of Kola. Patrol vessels were also assigned to aid fishermen along the coast. Social services were introduced by the Archangel Branch

2. Engelhardt, A. P., *A Russian Province of the North*, Archibald Constable and Company, London, 1899. p. 1.

of the Red Cross which sent a doctor and assistants with medical supplies for the duration of the fishing season.

The Great War and Intervention

When the Great War broke out, the Kola Peninsula was still little developed and the total population was only about 10,000. Communication between Russia and the Allies was soon cut in the Baltic and Black Seas by the Central Powers, leaving only the Arctic route open. Thus, overnight the Kola Peninsula with its ice-free harbors became of paramount importance as the only water route open throughout the year for sending war supplies to the ill-equipped Russian armies on the Eastern front. In March, 1915, construction of the Murmansk Railroad, over 500 miles long, was started. The work was rushed, using 100,000 Russian laborers and many German war prisoners. In 1916, the road was put into operation, only half-completed and poorly equipped with the tracks laid over hastily built roadbeds across swamps and unstable tundra. Its terminus on the Gulf of Kola was a new port between Kola and Ekaterina Harbor which was named Murmansk. The railroad immediately became the principal artery for military supplies being sent from England and France to Russia. Because of this, Germany extended her submarine operations to Russia's Arctic waters and succeeded in sinking a considerable number of ships carrying military supplies.

The year 1917 passed quietly in the Kola Peninsula, despite the changes in leadership in the Russian nation. Nevertheless the peace negotiations between Russia and the Central Powers which began in December were profoundly to affect the Kola Peninsula. There were now three sides in the struggle—the Allies, the Central Powers, and the Soviet Government. The latter with the overwhelming support of the Russian people wanted peace and a chance to rebuild the country so thoroughly shattered by the war. The Allies saw in this eventuality the dissolution of the Eastern front which had been of inestimable value for over three years in diverting full German pressure from the Western front. The Germans, on their part, sought to make full use of the Russian military collapse and to prevent the creation of a new Eastern front. These con-

flicting aims focussed themselves to a large extent in North Russia where lay the life-line between England and France and Russia. In February, 1918, the German forces in Finland quickly brought that country under German influence. In a short time a German-Finnish advance eastward endangered the North Russia line of communication and threatened the capture of Murmansk for the establishment of a submarine base to operate against Allied shipping. To forestall such a move the Allied representatives, on March 2, made an agreement with the Murmansk Soviet, promising not to interfere in the internal affairs of the region, but permitting them to extend military aid against the then common enemy in the North, the German-Finnish forces. On March 9, the first Allied troops of this campaign were landed at Murmansk.

In the meantime, March 3, the Brest-Litovsk treaty was signed, supposedly ending all hostilities between Germany and the Soviets. The Allies, however, had not given up the idea of re-forming an Eastern front, while at the same time the presence of their forces in North Russia was a source of irritation to Germany. The Soviet Government was caught in the middle of the dispute, for the Allies felt that the Soviets by making peace with Germany had sold out Russia's former allies, and the Germans felt that the Soviets were allowing an anti-German force to operate on their territory.

In May, when the Allies had only about 2,500 troops ashore in Murmansk, the Germans and Finns crossed the Russian border and advanced toward the Murmansk Railway in Karelia. At about the same time two German submarines appeared off the Murmansk coast and sank two Norwegian sail boats, then shelled the lifeboat with survivors from a Russian ship they had sunk and completed their operations by shelling some of the coastal settlements. A protest from the Soviet Government was soon countered by a demand that the Allied forces be forced to withdraw. Despite this, on May 24, the U. S. Cruiser *Olympia*, Admiral Dewey's old flagship at the Battle of Manila, arrived in Murmansk and a few days later the first Americans were landed.

In the meantime the Soviet government had become genuinely alarmed at the presence of Allied troops in the North and

increased its efforts to have the Murmansk Regional Soviet effect their withdrawal. The Allies were there, however, and in the confused situation were already too entrenched to be put out. On June 30, the Murmansk Regional Soviet, apparently with local popular approval, decided not to obey Moscow's order but to allow the Allied forces to remain on the basis of the existing agreement not to interfere in the internal affairs of the country but to protect Russian territory from the Finnish-German forces. The next day while more French and British troops were being landed Moscow denounced the action of the Murmansk Soviet. The Allies now considered the Soviet Government as supporting the Central Powers and therefore as their enemy. A few days later actual hostilities occurred between the Murmansk-Allied forces and the Bolsheviks in Karelia.

On July 6, the Presidium of the Murmansk Regional Soviet signed an agreement with the Allies "with the object of united action on the part of the signatories for the defense of the Murmansk Region against the powers of the German coalition. . . . All the authority in the internal government of the region belongs to the Murmansk Regional Council." In signing the agreement the Allied forces "do again confirm the absence on their part of any intention to taking possession of the Murmansk Region in its entirety or part thereof." The Presidium declared "that the sole reason for concluding this agreement is to preserve the Murmansk Region in its integrity for the great undivided Russia."³ This agreement was subsequently ratified by the Murmansk Regional Soviet, Great Britain, France, Italy, Serbia, Japan and the United States.

Throughout the campaign there was little actual fighting on the Kola Peninsula. It merely served as a base for the struggle against first the German-Finnish forces and later the Bolshevik forces in Karelia. In August, the Allied forces occupied Archangel which then became the principal base of this undeclared northern war. A puppet government entirely dominated by the Allied forces was immediately set up at Archangel and claimed jurisdiction over the former Province of Archangel

3. Strakhovsky, Leonid I., *The Origins of American Intervention in North Russia* (1918), Princeton University Press, Princeton, 1937, pp. 69-70.

which included the Kola Peninsula. The Murmansk Regional Soviet was at first recognized by this Archangel regime as in power locally, but within two months the Murmansk leaders were accused of Bolshevism and a warrant issued for their arrest. On October 5, a decree from Archangel abolished the Murmansk Regional Soviet and ordered the liquidation of the Soviet institutions in the Murmansk Region. This decree legally cancelled the Murmansk Agreement of July 6 and gave the Allies a free hand in North Russia, hampered by no obligations to the Russians.

With the collapse of the Central Powers and the signing of the Armistice in November, the North Russia campaign could no longer be classed as part of the war against Germany and her allies. As early as December 23, 1917, France and England had reached a secret agreement for common action in Russia. Less than a year later, under British leadership, the Allies were trying to destroy the central Soviet Government and dismember its territory. On May 29, 1919, the British Minister for War Winston Churchill, said in the House of Commons: "... there is now good prospect of the whole of North Russia becoming self-supporting within a reasonable time and of purely Russian forces maintaining themselves against the Bolsheviks in that theatre."⁴ How nearly this succeeded in North Russia will always be a question. The attempt on the part of the Allies was half-hearted and suffered from having practically no popular support at home. Added to the military difficulties, this finally forced a withdrawal of foreign troops. The last of the American troops sailed June, 1919, followed by the remaining forces in October. For a time a White Russian army, well supplied with Allied war materials, tried to keep the North Russian government alive. Within a few weeks, however, it was seriously defeated in Karelia; then a revolt broke out in Murmansk and the Bolsheviks gained control of the city February 20, 1920. In March, North Russia including the Kola Peninsula was again under Moscow's control.

In 1918, Finland, after declaring its independence, had claimed a large part of northern Russia, including the Kola

4. Coates, W. P. and Zelda K., *Armed Intervention in Russia, 1918-1922*, Victor Gollancz Ltd., London, 1935, p. 167.

Peninsula. At this time the Karelian movement for independence also claimed the Kola Peninsula as part of a future Karelian state. These claims were finally settled in 1920 at the peace conference between Finland and the Soviet Government when the latter agreed to a compromise by which Finland was to have the Pechenga District at the western end of the Kola Peninsula. The present boundaries were then drawn, providing Finland with a narrow corridor to the Arctic coast between Norway and the Soviet Union.

The Kola Peninsula under the Soviets

Since 1920 the importance of the Kola Peninsula has vastly increased. Its commercial facilities have been expanded and it has become an important mining center. Administratively it is no longer linked with Archangel. Since 1921 it has been the Murmansk District of the Province of Leningrad with the city of Murmansk as the local administrative center.* Although the two parts of Leningrad Province are separated by the Karelia A.S.S.R. they supplement each other industrially and commercially. The port of Murmansk, open all the year, is in this way closely linked administratively with the larger port of Leningrad which is icebound in winter. The effectiveness of this relationship has been further advanced by the new Baltic-White Sea Canal which runs northward from Leningrad. Industrially, the mining and chemical industries of the Kola Peninsula are also closely allied to the industrial developments of the Leningrad area and forms one of its important sources of raw materials.

Although the port of Kandalaksha on the southwest side of the Kola Peninsula at the western end of the White Sea is included in the Karelian A.S.S.R., geographically and in terms of industrial activity it is closely allied with the Murmansk District and must therefore be included in any survey of the Kola Peninsula.

When the Soviet government gained control of the Kola Peninsula in 1920, the Murmansk Railroad was in very bad condition. Two years were required to put it on an effective

*After this article went to press, information was received that on May 28 the Murmansk District of the Leningrad Province was re-formed into a separate Murmansk Province (oblast'), consisting of the entire Kola Peninsula and the region around Kandalaksha which was formerly included in the Karelian A.S.S.R. (See *Pravda*, May 29)

operating basis. In 1923, at the suggestion of Dzerzhinski, the government formed the Murmansk Railroad Combinat, charged with carrying out the development of the peninsula. Its functions were not only to manage and operate a railroad line but also included colonization, the development of the fishing and lumber industries, the improvement of the port of Murmansk, the establishment of experimental agricultural stations and the study and exploitation of the natural resources of the region. This economic combinat operated for six years until 1929. During this time a saw mill, canning factory, brick factory, and other smaller plants were put in operation; an agricultural experimental station was established at Khibinsk; port facilities were improved; and a modernizing program launched in the fishing industry. In effect, during these years the basis was laid for the tremendous economic expansion in this region which occurred during the first and second Five-Year Plans. Even though each aspect of the developments of the last decade of necessity must be treated separately here, they all were closely coordinated according to plan and were carried out simultaneously.

Mining and Industry

The most important recent development on the Kola Peninsula is the discovery and exploitation of its vast mineral resources. The presence of valuable minerals was known as early as the 16th century, and geological expeditions explored the peninsula in the years before the Great War. But the extent of the mineral wealth was unknown until revealed by the expeditions sent out each year between 1920 and 1929 by the Murmansk Railroad in cooperation with the Soviet Union's Academy of Sciences and more recent expeditions.

Apatite

In 1921 some lumps of green apatite ore were found, and, in 1924, a geological party headed by Professor Fersman discovered, in the Khibin Mountains, what has since turned out to be the largest known accumulation of apatite and the richest apatite strata in the world. Accompanying it were vast supplies of nepheline, a component of apatite ore. As a result of further geological explorations the known reserves of

apatite in the Khibin deposits have steadily increased. In the summer of 1930 they were estimated as at least 375,000,000 tons*; in November, 1932, 530,000,000 tons; and in January, 1937, 2,000,000,000 tons. The accompanying resources of nepheline are considered practically inexhaustible.

Both apatite and nepheline are essential to the chemical industries of a modern industrial and agricultural state. Apatite ore is used chiefly in the iron and steel industry, in the production of thermo-phosphates, and in the electro-metallurgical industry. Apatite concentrate is used in the production of super-phosphates, phosphoric acid, thermo-phosphates and other fertilizers and chemicals. Nepheline is used in the manufacture of aluminum, glass, fertilizers, tannin, ceramics and electrical insulators, while experiments now being carried on by the Academy of Sciences point to still further uses.

In 1929, as part of the first Five-Year Plan, the government decided to organize the Apatite Trust to carry on the preliminary work done by the Murmansk Railroad Combinat and to conduct actual mining operations. In December, S. M. Kirov, chairman of the Leningrad Regional Executive Committee, visited the prospecting and construction camps. As a result of his recommendations activities were greatly increased. On May 15, 1930, the government gave orders to begin mining operations, to erect a hydro-electric station, to build a refinery, and to begin the construction of a city for the growing population. By the end of the year, 165,000 tons of apatite ore had been mined and the new city boasted a population of 1,948.

In September, 1931, a concentrating and refining plant of American design and equipment, with an annual capacity of 250,000 tons of apatite concentrate, was put in operation. Subsequently a second refining plant was built with a capacity of 750,000 tons. Mining methods have meanwhile greatly improved. In the early years the apatite was extracted from surface workings which was a difficult procedure because of the severe climate and the long periods of darkness. In 1933, a gradual shift was made to more efficient underground mining. The production of apatite has increased steadily from 387,000 tons in 1932 to over 3,000,000 tons in 1936. The amount of con-

*Tons referred to in this article are metric tons, equal to 2,204.6 lbs.

concentrates produced rose from 213,400 tons in 1933 to over 1,000,000 tons in 1936.

Up to 1930 the USSR had been forced to import raw materials for its superphosphate industry. The phosphorites from Morocco alone cost millions of gold rubles annually. Beginning in 1931 these imports became unnecessary as Soviet superphosphates began to be made from domestic raw materials. At the same time the export of apatite, beginning in 1930, increased to over 500,000 tons in 1936. At first, more apatite ore was exported than apatite concentrate, but, by 1934, with the new refineries in operation, the reverse was true and in 1936 the export ratio of apatite ore to apatite concentrate was roughly one to three.

Primarily because of the opening of the Khibin mines, the Russian production of superphosphates, one of the three most important heavy chemicals, increased from 62,000 tons in 1913 to about 890,000 tons in 1934. As superphosphate is one of the most valuable of the phosphate fertilizers, this increase in production has greatly benefited the nation's agricultural program. As the production of apatite mounted, new chemical combines have been organized in both Kandalaksha and Leningrad. Among these an aluminum plant of 20,000 ton capacity, using Khibin nepheline to produce aluminum oxide, has begun operations in Kandalaksha. Due primarily to the development of these apatite-nepheline deposits the northwest region of Leningrad and Karelia have become the fourth largest center of the Soviet chemical industry.

The new mining city first contemplated in 1930 has now become a reality. As early as 1932 its population had grown to 32,119. Known at first as Khibinogorsk, its name was changed in 1934 to Kirovsk in honor of the late S. M. Kirov. During these years it has become a modern city in every respect with the usual urban facilities and the features of city planning similar to other newly built industrial centers of the USSR. Of its present 35,000 inhabitants about 20,000 work in industry, mining and scientific institutes and about 6000 are enrolled students.

Other Minerals

The discovery of the Khibin apatite-nepheline deposits stim-

ulated a more thorough study and development of other resources of the peninsula. Before 1917 there was known to exist one fairly large deposit of ferrous quartzite with estimated reserves of 2,000,000 tons. During the first Five-Year Plan the estimate of investigated resources of iron ore increased to 5,000,000 tons. By 1933 two deposits of ferrous quartzite had been explored with reserves of ore of 600,000,000 tons and by 1934 still other deposits of iron ore were located with reserves of 800,000,000 tons. Compared to known iron resources elsewhere in the USSR, these deposits are not large, but their great significance lies in the fact that they can supply sufficient ore for the heavy industries of Leningrad now dependent on iron brought by the long overland rail route from the Ukraine and the Urals.

Between 1932 and 1934 large copper-nickel deposits were discovered and explored in the Monche tundra not far from the Khibin mines. The nickel deposits are second in size in the USSR to the Norilsk deposit, also in the Arctic near the mouth of the Yenisei River. Though the ore is of inferior quality and more difficult to concentrate than the Norilsk nickel, it is far more accessible. In May, 1935, the government decided to build a copper-nickel combinat and to construct a city near the mines. Where there had been only one building in 1934, the new city of Monchegorsk now has a population of 18,500. It is also connected by a spur to the mainline of the Murmansk Railroad. In 1937, there were 10,000 workers employed on the construction of mine shafts, the nickel refinery and the erection of the city. In 1938, 35,000,000 rubles will be spent in the combinat and during this year the first section of the refinery is scheduled to begin operations.

Other minerals such as gold, silver, lead, zinc, coal, titanium and some of the rare earths have also been found on the Kola Peninsula.

Electrification

The rivers of the Kola Peninsula and northern Karelia provide potentialities for hydro-electric developments sufficient to operate all the industrial plants and the railroads and to supply electricity to the cities. At present the main cities have steam plants for local use. Two main hydro-electric developments

have been begun and in each case the first units have been put in operation. In the southern part of the peninsula between Kandalaksha and the Khibin mines is the Niva River project designed eventually to supply electricity to the mines and refineries at Monchegorsk and Kirovsk and the refineries and industries of the Kandalaksha district. The first unit, Niva Station Number Two, was opened in 1934, developing a total of 62,000 kilowatt hours. A fifth turbine to increase its capacity by 15,000 kilowatt hours is being added. Construction has been begun on Station Number Three which is to have an ultimate capacity of 150,000 kilowatt hours. Another hydro-electric development is being built in the north near Murmansk. Station Number One was begun in 1934 and put into operation in 1937 with a capacity of 48,000 kilowatt hours. Power is derived from the Tuloma River, across which a dam, ninety-five feet in height, has been built.

High powered tension lines are already being built to connect these electric stations in a regional network. According to plan, the principal water power sites of the peninsula will have been developed in the next decade and the region will then be completely electrified.

During the first Five-Year Plan, in line with the policy of electrifying the most heavily loaded main railway lines of importance to the national economy, the electrification of the Murmansk Railroad across the Kola Peninsula was started. On January 1, 1936, electric operation, using power from the Niva Station, was begun on the southern section extending north from Kandalaksha a distance of seventy miles. This included the branch line to the new mining city of Kirovsk. Electrification of the remaining 114 miles of line to Murmansk, using the Tuloma power, is to be completed in 1938.

Murmansk

Since its establishment in 1915, the port of Murmansk has become the largest city of the Arctic. From a settlement of two to three thousand in 1916, the population has grown steadily in proportion to the economic activities of the peninsula. In 1921 it had a population of 5,000; in 1926, 8,777, in 1930,

13,800, and in 1937, 120,000. In recent years its port and railroad facilities have been greatly enlarged to accommodate the growing trade. Both the Murmansk Fishery Combinat and the Northern Sea Route Administration maintain shipyards there. At present the latter is building what is described as the largest ship repair yard in the USSR which will serve the ships of the whole western part of the Soviet Arctic including the Lena, Kara, and Yenisei fishing fleets and the merchant vessels plying the trade routes along the Murman coast. Coal from the two Soviet mines in Spitsbergen is shipped to Murmansk throughout the summer. In 1936, the 475,000 tons produced there was enough for the requirements of all Soviet vessels in northern waters.

Fishing

Though mining has become the Kola Peninsula's biggest industry, fishing still plays a very important part in the economics of the region. The commercial catch consists mainly of cod, haddock, and turbot. In addition, there are seal fisheries along the Murman coast. Although the annual maritime fishing and hunting yield was only 13,000 tons in 1913, it had grown to 35,800 tons in 1928 and by 1937 to 277,900 tons. Beginning as early as 1925 the government sent six new trawlers to Murmansk and in that year built a trawler base. It also brought from Archangel a dry dock capable of handling 3000-ton vessels. Subsequently the Murmansk Fishery Combinat was established and in recent years the entire fishing industry has been re-equipped, modernized and mechanized. Fishing collectives have also been formed. The Murmansk trawler fleet in 1937 had grown to about eighty vessels which accounted for 200,000 tons or five-sevenths of the entire catch.

In addition to the new shipyards, the combinat has built and put into operation two factories in Murmansk for canning and curing fish and a cannery with an annual capacity of about 5,000,000 tins in Kandalaksha. A floating cannery is also being built for the Murman fisheries. Each day during the fishing season refrigerated railroad cars leave Murmansk carrying fresh fish to the large inland cities of European Russia.

Each summer since 1920 scientific studies of the fishing resources and marine life have been conducted in Barents Sea. At present, a large and elaborately equipped marine biological station is being built near Murmansk by the Academy of Sciences.

Agriculture and Livestock

As early as 1920 an experimental station was established to study agricultural possibilities in the Arctic. Since then other stations have been opened especially around the new cities. To date the original station at Khibinsk reports success in producing various kinds of fodder crops and vegetables which can be grown in the severe northern climate. In 1937, on the Kola Peninsula there was a total of 6039 acres under cultivation of which 1025 acres belonged to collective farms and 4374 acres to state farms. With a gradual extension of Arctic agriculture it is hoped that in time the local population will be able to provide itself with vegetables and feed for dairy herds.

Raising reindeer for the commercial meat market was begun in the last century. Zyrians from the Pechora region to the east who settled in the Kola Peninsula had herds numbering about 10,000 head and the Russian settlers had about 5000. However, most of the herds were owned by the native Lapps who used them mainly for their own meat supply and for winter transport purposes. At the present time the Lapps have been drawn into the reindeer industry and are active in newly formed collectives and on the state reindeer and cattle farms. As a part of the program to develop a local food supply it is planned to increase the herds to answer these needs.

The Kola Peninsula as a Whole

Such statistics as are available for the Kola Peninsula, as a whole, substantiate the great changes that have occurred as a result of intensive economic development. In 1897 the resident population numbered 9,140 with about 3000 transients during the fishing season. In 1917 the permanent population was 10,300. Beginning soon after the cessation of hostilities in 1920, the population increased rapidly, as follows: 1926, 23,016; 1930, 32,000; 1933, 113,000; and 1935, 207,566. At present it is believed to be around 260,000. In 1935, of the total

population, 173,977 were classed as urban and 33,589 as rural. The number of workers in large industrial establishments grew from 20,000 in 1934 to 28,900 in 1937.

The capital investments made by the Soviet Union in the industries of the Kola Peninsula are as follows: 1929, 5,000,000 rubles; 1930, 31,000,000 rubles; and in 1934, 127,000,000 rubles. The gross output of industry has risen from 27,000,000 rubles in 1930 to 148,000,000 rubles in 1934 and 270,800,000 rubles in 1937.

A corresponding growth in education and medical facilities is indicated by current statistics. Before the Great War there were ten primary and church schools. In 1917, there were twenty-four schools with 28 teachers and a total of 670 pupils. In 1937, there are listed 127 schools and institutes with 1087 teachers and 35,709 enrolled students. Of these at least twenty-six are 7-year schools and six are 10-year schools. There are also four *tekhnikums* for specialized advanced study consisting of a medical school in Murmansk, a mining school in Kirovsk, and a normal school and a school on reindeer raising in other parts of the peninsula.

A recent report indicates that there are now forty-eight hospitals, six polyclinics, a tubercular dispensary and a large number of local health centers and maternity homes.

Defense

The strategic value of the Kola Peninsula has been shown, in the past, particularly during the Great War and the period of intervention, and by its current economic expansion. The role of the Kola Peninsula in a possible conflict in Europe involving the Soviet Union can be further evaluated by a consideration of some of the international factors involved.

An attack on the Kola Peninsula would not necessarily be confined to naval engagements. The Murmansk Railway skirts the Finnish frontier for over 500 miles. Thus, if bases were established in Finland and Norway the peninsula could be attacked from at least two sides by using land, as well as sea and air forces. In the last few years German influence in Finland has been considerable and it might conceivably become dominant. A Finnish fascist movement exists which advocates a

"Fascist Greater Finland" to include Karelia and the Kola Peninsula. It is further commonly reported that in the summer of 1937 the former German Minister of War, General von Blomberg, with a hundred military and naval men, spent a month on the northern coast of Norway; that German warships pay frequent visits to the Norwegian coast; that mysterious unidentified planes have been heard flying over northern Scandinavia. Reports are current that Germany and Italy are attempting to establish a fishing station on a Finnish island off the Arctic coast, strategically located for conversion into a naval base. Whether these reports are true or not, they at least indicate the growing attention that is being paid to the Kola Peninsula and the reasons why this region may yet be in the forefront of international affairs in northern Europe.

That the Soviet Government has been aware of these potentialities is shown by recent activities, designed to make possible a successful defense of this region. It would appear that along this frontier, as in the case of others, the Soviet defenses have been strengthened far enough in advance to forestall all but a desperate and determined attack.

On May 18, 1933, a detachment of the Soviet Baltic Fleet sailed through the newly opened Baltic-White Sea Canal to become the nucleus of the new Northern Fleet. On their passage through the canal the vessels were reviewed by Stalin, Kirov, and Voroshilov, Commissar of the USSR's military and naval forces. Later these leaders visited the Peninsula. The same year the modernization of the old port of Alexandrovsk was undertaken, in order to establish a strong naval base for the Northern Fleet. A new city was built alongside the old settlement and renamed Poliarnoe, or Polar City.

Subsequently, little was heard of these northern forces until May 18, 1938, when the Northern Fleet celebrated the fifth anniversary of its founding. On that occasion a dispatch in the *New York Times* stated, "The fleet's commander, Admiral K. I. Dushenov, declared that this newest Soviet naval unit was now strong enough . . . to bar hostile ships and to keep open the Soviet seaways to the west and east. . . . There is no reason to doubt the truth of this boast, for it is no secret that the Soviet Union has been busily engaged in building up naval

bases and shore defenses and buying and constructing warships in recent years, with special emphasis on the northern area. . . . Details . . . are carefully guarded, but general information has been given out as regards strong fortifications on the bleak and rocky coast of the Kola Peninsula. . . . [The] Baltic-White Sea Canal is almost as important strategically as is the Panama Canal to the United States, for by means of it warships can pass easily in a few days from the Baltic to the Arctic Ocean. . . .”⁵

The Kola Peninsula has thus become the only well-fortified part of the Polar Regions and may be considered the Gibraltar of the western Soviet Arctic. In the last decade and a half it has assumed an importance far more than that dictated by its geographic position, for it is now an integral part of the social-economic system of the USSR, with mining, industrial and commercial establishments of national importance.

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DOSTOEVSKI IN SOVIET RUSSIA

By

ERNEST J. SIMMONS*

In a recent article in *The New Republic* Edmund Wilson warns Americans to beware of making a myth of the Soviet Union. "We have been under the spell of the Soviet publicity," he says, "as we were formerly under that of the Russian novels." The myth of Russia in the novels, however, was read into them by uncritical and sentimental foreign readers. Russians of the past found a truthful and bitter reality in their great novels, and in actuality Russians of today are in much less danger of having myths imposed upon them by Soviet publicity than Americans are by their own myth-making press. Perhaps no novelist has done more to encourage the old Russian myth among undiscerning foreign readers than Dostoevski, and from this point of view it will be interesting to examine the critical appreciation of him in Soviet Russia.

Inventories seem to be a necessary part of revolutions, and Soviet Russia is still conducting a rigorous stocktaking of its cultural past. One by one the great Russian classical authors have been called up to the dock by the magistrates of Marxian criticism. Their credentials have been examined, their political ideology investigated, and the severe test of socialist realism applied to their works. A few authors have been exiled to a literary Solovetski Island, others enthusiastically retained, and many, by dint of judicious sociological rehabilitation, are discovered to be genuine forerunners of the great Soviet Revolution. The Soviets have been keenly conscious of the political desirability of identifying their cause with great literary figures. They wish to appear, and in fact are, protectors and sponsors of culture. Many famous authors of the past have received more scholarly attention and infinitely wider dissemination in numerous publications than before the Revolution. The first national literary idol was Gorki, who at one time or another caused his proletarian followers many misgivings. But they have not

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been averse to hitching their communistic wagon to some literary star in the old classical firmament of Russian letters. This was Pushkin's happy fate last February, on the occasion of the hundredth anniversary of his death. The Soviet critics found in him a poet of the first magnitude, with whom they could most advantageously identify their cultural aspirations, if not always their political ideology.

In the case of Dostoevski, the examining magistrates of Marxian criticism have been a bit baffled. Gorki was one of the first, and certainly the most influential, of Soviet critics to condemn him. While admitting that both Dostoevski and Tolstoi were great geniuses, he charged Dostoevski with counselling "patience" to an oppressed people, and Tolstoi with advising Russians to perfect themselves and not to oppose evil. Such counsel, says Gorki, is the advice of "petty-bourgeoisie and defeatists." Further, Tolstoi and Dostoevski both committed the unpardonable Soviet sin of being selfish individualists, and "this is as certain," Gorki characteristically concludes, "as there are no goats without a smell."¹

On the other hand, it is interesting to observe how a simple scholar squares Dostoevski's genius with Marxian ideology. G. Gorbachev begins his foreword to the first volume of the splendid Soviet edition of Dostoevski's letters: "An edition of Dostoevski's letters in our day, intended for dissemination among broad circles of readers, may invoke a whole series of objections. And the first of these would concern the very need or even the possibility of a sale of Dostoevski in Soviet lands in a period of cultural revolution and bitter struggle against mysticism, idealism, and decadence."² Further on, however, this apologist reassures his conscience and his readers by declaring: "It would be absurd to force Dostoevski upon the masses, but to know him is both useful and necessary among very broad strata of our intelligentsia, occupied as they are in the struggle with the class enemy on the ideological front."³

Similar quotations of condemnation and apology could be accumulated without end from the works of Soviet critics and

1. M. Gorki, "Zametki o meshchanstve," *Literaturno-kyriticheskie statii* (Moscow, 1937), pp. 7-11. For further condemnation of Dostoevski by Gorki, see *ibid.*, pp. 145-149.

2. F. M. Dostoevski, *Pisma*, ed. A. S. Dolinin (Moscow-Leningrad, 1928), I, iii.

3. *Ibid.*, I, v.

scholars. But enough has been said to indicate that "politically" Dostoevski is more or less *persona non grata* in the Soviet Union. The fact should not be forgotten, however, that in pre-revolutionary Russia Dostoevski was condemned and apologized for with almost as much acerbity as today.

But the works of a great genius are not simply banished, ignored, or forgotten. There is a timelessness and enduring quality about them which transcend all social and political change. Such is the case with Dostoevski in Soviet Russia; he has lost little of his commanding position among the great novelists of his country.

From personal inquiry in Soviet Russia and by consulting library lists, it was not difficult to ascertain that Dostoevski is still a favorite among the rank and file of readers. And his pronounced influence on certain prominent Soviet writers, such as Erenburg, Fedin, Leonov, and Fadaev, was important enough to inspire a pretty lengthy study of the subject.⁴ In 1928 a separate museum was dedicated to him by Soviet authorities, and an extensive exposition of his works and life, entitled "Twenty Years of Dostoevski in the USSR, 1917-1937," has recently gone on display.

Naturally, however, the full extent of the interest in Dostoevski in Soviet Russia may be more correctly gauged by a consideration of his published works and literary remains and by the number of popular and scholarly investigations of his life, novels, and publicist writings. The quantity, if not the quality, of such material in the last twenty years compares favorably with that of any similar period previously. I should like to give some brief indication of the scope of such material, and to single out a few of the best contributions for special comment.⁵

Since the Revolution there has been a number of editions of separate novels, but the most noteworthy contribution in this respect was the publication of the complete works of Dostoevski. The thirteen volumes in this set contain also *The Diary of A*

4. M. M. Polyakov, "Dostoevski v otrazhenii sovremennosti," *Literatura i Marksizm*, VI (1929), 117-145.

5. For a complete bibliography, covering the years 1903-1923, see N. A. Sokolov, "Materialy dlya bibliografii F. M. Dostoevskogo," *Dostoevski; statii i materialy*, ed. A. S. Dolinin, II (Leningrad, 1925); for a bibliography of material from 1923-1930, see F. M. Dostoevski, *Statii za 1845-1878 gody* (Moscow-Leningrad, 1930), pp. 617-625.

Writer and Dostoevski's miscellaneous articles.⁶ The edition is well edited, with variant readings, notes, and indices. To this publication, in the same format, has been added a splendid edition of Dostoevski's letters, with full notes, edited by A. S. Dolinin.⁷ So far only three volumes of the letters have been published; it is hoped that the fourth and last will appear shortly.

Among the most important contributions of Soviet scholars of Dostoevski's manuscripts are the two volumes of hitherto unpublished material concerning *Crime and Punishment* and *The Idiot*.⁸ These volumes, which consist of over two hundred pages each, contain all the material in Dostoevski's notebooks that has any bearing on these two novels. Here are detailed plans, rough drafts of characters and situation, psychological observations, and even debates with himself over the choice of individual words. The wealth of material provides an absorbing literary laboratory where the critic has an intimate view of the genesis and development of *Crime and Punishment* and *The Idiot*. Such publications offer a convincing refutation of the common assumption that Dostoevski worked with little plan and in an uncritical fashion. For *The Idiot* alone the notes indicate that the author deliberated on no less than eight different plans for this novel. Such material, of course, is of the highest importance for students of Dostoevski.

Apart from the letters, the strictly biographical material published on Dostoevski since the Revolution has not been extensive. It consists mostly of recollections of members of the novelist's family and of friends, and a few studies on special phases of his life.⁹

This comparative neglect of biography is not accidental. Ever since the inception of Marxian methodology in literary history, Soviet critics and scholars have pounded away at the futility of

6. F. M. Dostoevski, *Polnoe sobranie khudozhestvennykh proizvedeni* (Moscow-Leningrad, 1926-1930), vols. I-XIII.

7. F. M. Dostoevski, *Pisma*, ed. A. S. Dolinin (Moscow-Leningrad, 1928-1934), vols. I-III.

8. *Iz Arkhiva F. M. Dostoevskogo, Prestuplenie i Nakazanie* (Moscow-Leningrad, 1931); *Iz Arkhiva F. M. Dostoevskogo, Idiot* (Moscow-Leningrad, 1931).

9. For a bibliography of such material up to 1930, see F. M. Dostoevski, *Stati za 1845-1878 gody*, op. cit., pp. 621-625; for studies after 1930, see T. Shtreikh, "Epizod iz zhizni Dostoevskogo," *Prozhektor*, IV (Moscow, 1931); M. V. Volotskoi, *Khronika Roda Dostoevskogo, 1506-1933* (Moscow, 1933); T. Shtreikh, "Vechnaya liubov Dostoevskogo," *Ogonëk*, XVIII (Moscow, 1933); L. P. Grossman, *Zbizi i trudy F. M. Dostoevskogo; biografiya v datakh i dokumentakh* (Moscow, 1935).

biographical study as a means of adding anything constructive to the understanding or interpretation of an author's works. Certainly, biography as it is ordinarily practised in Western Europe and America is entirely eschewed. Some of the Soviet extremists in this direction would not hesitate to condemn even an edition of Dostoevski's letters as valuable material in understanding his imaginative productions. However, the more moderate Soviet critics accept biographical investigation so long as it restricts itself to the social, economic, and political factors in the life of a writer. Naturally, such uncertainty has served to preëempt scholarly interest in this field to a considerable degree.

In the sphere of critical analysis and interpretation of Dostoevski's novels, however, Soviet scholars have produced a large body of material. The interest seems to be part of the general European and American critical interest in Dostoevski since the World War. But the studies in Western Europe have taken a direction quite different from that of the Soviet investigations. Western European critics, and particularly the most numerous of them, the Germans (before the advent of fascism), seem to have been concerned largely with creating a kind of legend about Dostoevski. For them Dostoevski is a symbol, a definite complex of ethical, cultural, religious, and political ideas. They see in him a prophet, a creator of new cultural values, which are to take the place of those destroyed by the World War. In their eagerness to discover in Dostoevski a great prophet, philosopher, or psychologist, they appear to forget the fact that he never considered himself a prophet, philosopher, or psychologist, but an artist in the novel. And it is primarily as a novelist that he should be treated. Even Middleton Murry, who appears to have been somewhat influenced by the German critics, goes so far as to maintain that Dostoevski's novels are not novels at all, and are considered such only by those incompetent to know the difference.¹⁰

The Soviet scholars, of course, entertain an abiding suspicion of Dostoevski the thinker, philosopher, and social theorist. For them a novel, such as *The Possessed*, to say nothing of his pub-

10. For an excellent study and bibliography of all Western European literature on Dostoevski up to 1924, see J. M. Romein, *Dostojewski in de westerse kritiek* (Haarlem, 1924); cf. also F. P. Shiller, "Legenda o Dostoevskom v zapadno-evropeiskoi literaturnoi kritike," *Literatura i Marksizm*, V (1928), 95-106; F. Riza-Zade, "Dostoevski v zapadnoi kritike," *Literatura i Marksizm*, III (1929), 139-175.

licist writings, places Dostoevski emphatically on the side of reaction. They naturally have no sympathy with his oft-repeated condemnation of socialism or his bitter arraignment of the very possibility of a rational solution of the social and political ills of mankind. Further, Dostoevski's ultimate answer of faith in God and in the Orthodox Church earns the scorn of Soviet critics. The ethical and social ideal enunciated by Zosima in *The Brothers Karamazov* may be accepted as representing Dostoevski's own ideal, for it agrees pretty closely with that which we may piece together from the ideas expressed in his letters and in *The Diary of a Writer*. Now Soviet critics have no patience with this philosophy of optimism of Zosima. They point out that it is a philosophy of stagnation, of failing power, which amounts actually to the debasing of life. For it reconciles man with all the evil and suffering in the world. If all is for the best in this best of possible worlds, then why struggle at all, the Soviet critics ask? Why strive to progress and go forward? It is a philosophy of idleness and beggary, of the futility of both body and spirit.

Of course, there were fundamental contradictions in the social, political, and religious ideas of Dostoevski, and the curious oracular nature of many of his important statements on these subjects permits of a varied interpretation. In certain instances Soviet scholars have availed themselves of this opening, either to apologize for Dostoevski's apparent conservative attitude, or to give a more pointed significance to Merezhkovski's well-known declaration that Dostoevski was "the prophet of the Russian Revolution." Such critics insist that Dostoevski's life struggle was essentially a struggle against the bourgeoisie, that he defended the Church and Tsarism because for him liberalism and nihilism were common enemies. Through no fault of his own, he simply missed the real point at issue because the proletariat, as a conscious class with a mission, did not exist in his day. He felt the importance of the masses and their striving towards freedom, but he was unable to perceive, because of the limitations of his epoch, the revolutionary path that the masses would have to pursue.

For the most part, however, Soviet critics have wisely avoided

this dubious course of rehabilitating Dostoevski politically and socially. Rather they have been content to expend their efforts largely upon analysis and interpretation of his novels in an effort to arrive at some clearer idea of the creative art of Dostoevski. Within the scope of this article it is impossible to give any detailed account of the wide variety of such material, which ranges from brief articles on the conception and interpretation of individual characters to whole books which present an analysis of all the novels in an effort to formulate the principles of Dostoevski's creative process.¹¹

Some mention should be made of two separate collections of articles, one edited by N. L. Brodski,¹² and the other by A. S. Dolinin.¹³ Of all this material, however, I should like to single out for special attention one book, *The Creative Art of Dostoevski*,¹⁴ by V. F. Pereverzev. This work has already gone through three editions, has aroused considerable controversy among Soviet critics, and seems destined to influence future study of the creative process of Dostoevski.

The Marxian approach runs like a thin red line through Pereverzev's whole investigation, but he never allows it to entangle him in the tortured dialectics of so much of the present-day Soviet criticism. Politically, he is content to describe Dostoevski as both a reactionary and a revolutionist at one and the same time, and he justifies this paradox on the basis of the inherent dualism of the petty-bourgeois revolutionary movement in which Dostoevski was caught up. For the tragedy of this class, Pereverzev explains, is that the revolutionist neutralizes the reactionary, and *vice versa*. Apart from dwelling with caution upon the possible sociological factors in the conception of Dostoevski's characters, the only other Marxian canon the author employs is his insistence upon the fact that any study of Dostoevski must clearly differentiate the psychological truth of created characters from the logical truth of the artist himself.

The real contribution of Pereverzev's study, however, is his

11. For a bibliography, see F. M. Dostoevski, *Stati za 1845-1878 gody, op. cit.*, pp. 621-626; for later items, see Avrahm Yarmolinsky, *Dostoevsky, A Life*, (New York, 1934), pp. 423-440.

12. *Tvorcheski put Dostoevskogo. Sbornik statei*, ed. N. L. Brodski (Leningrad, 1924).

13. *Dostoevski. Stati i materialy*, ed. A. S. Dolinin, II (Leningrad, 1925); F. M. Dostoevski; *materialy i issledovaniya* (Leningrad, 1935).

14. V. F. Pereverzev, *Tvorchestvo Dostoevskogo*, 3rd ed. (Moscow, 1928).

highly original analysis of the novels. He first makes the point that it is a grave error to dismiss as inconsequential in Dostoevski's literary development (which is often done) the works written before his imprisonment. For there is no essential change, but rather a development, between the early and later periods. Then, accepting the generally-conceded dualism of the characters, Pereverzev defines three dominant types which include practically all the great figures in the novels. There are first the "Meek" characters to which belong Vasya Shumkov in *The Faint Heart*, Rostanev in *The Village of Stepanchikovo*, Sonya Marmeladova, Myshkin, Darya Shatova, Alyosha Karamazov, Zosima, and others. The second type he calls the "Self-Willed" characters, among whom are numbered Orlov and Petrov in *The House of the Dead*, Valkovski in *The Insulted and Injured*, Svidrigailov, Kirillov, and Peter Verkhovenski. The third and most important type, the "Double," combines in endless opposition the dominating traits of the other two types—submissiveness and pride. Among the "Doubles" may be listed Devushkin, Golyadkin, Foma Opiskin, Natasha Ikhmeneva, the Underground Man, Raskolnikov, Nastasya Phillipovna, and Ivan Karamazov.

Stated thus baldly, it may seem that Pereverzev is merely indulging a much deplored scholarly failing for reducing the complexities of the creative mind to the simple terms of fixed categories which may be easily apprehended. But such is not the case. The genesis of each of these types is convincingly related to the stream of Dostoevski's creative process, and the various nuances of the several characterizations are carefully studied and related to the novels as a whole. Further, Pereverzev connects the pervasive ambivalence of the "Double," the predominant factor in the creative process, to Dostoevski's own frankly-admitted dualism. And finally, he points out that this same dualism is clearly reflected in the novelist's political, social, and religious ideas.

Despite the fact that much in Dostoevski's political and social thinking is uncongenial to Soviet critics, there is little likelihood that his fame as a novelist or his influence as an artist will diminish. After the early revolutionary tendency to ignore everything connected with the past had somewhat abated, and

critics had begun to realize more fully the wisdom of Marx's and Lenin's injunction that a literary heritage was an invaluable background upon which to build a new culture, Soviet writers turned eagerly to their great classical authors for artistic guidance. In this movement Dostoevski has played a prominent part in teaching Soviet writers the novelist's craft, and there is every reason to suppose that he will continue to do so.

PLANNED SOVIET PRICES

By

HENRY WARE*

American tourists in Moscow readily express their approval of the extensive program of social improvements; but they likewise are heard to express serious misgivings in regard to prices—prices of food and clothing, in particular. Somebody paid fifty cents for an orange,¹ while someone else bought a Russian blouse for ten dollars. A small bar of chocolate sold for one dollar. But the American resident in Moscow soon discovers that life is not so expensive, after all—for while he may have to spend most of his money for food and clothing, there is enough to cover the other expenses, too. He knows that a haircut may be had for as little as ten cents, a street car fare for two or three cents, and a municipal shower for six cents. Rent is cheap and medical care free. Everyone receives a vacation with pay.

In almost any other country in the world it is possible to say that the yen is cheap, the pound expensive, or the franc cheap—but it is impossible to say how much the ruble is worth in terms of dollars. It all depends upon what you are buying. The crux of the matter is that while in most parts of the world the various items composing a family budget are to be found in relatively unchanging proportions for any particular standard of living, these proportions are basically different in a socialist economy. While ordinarily a person spending 65 per cent of his income on food and clothing would be on a very low standard of living, this would not necessarily be the case in the Soviet Union.

To illustrate this point, take the hypothetical example of a family living on a real income of an unchanging size, represented by 10 units. In America, England, China or Australia the family might spend the ten units about as follows:

Food and clothing	5
Health	1
Everything else	4

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1. Foreign currency is accepted only at the bank, redeemable at a rate of approximately 5 rubles to the dollar.

If this same family went to live in the USSR, it would find that its ten units had to be spent in different proportions—approximately as follows:

Food and clothing	7
Health	free
Everything else	3

One may be justified in talking about prices of certain goods as being “expensive” or “cheap” in reference to most parts of the world—where the basic relationships between prices of goods and services are relatively constant. But it would be an error to take these relations for granted and to forget that they are potentially variable. Basically, there is no reason why we should be confused at seeing what appear to be unusual price relationships prevalent in the Soviet Union.

The reason for this unique difference in price relationships in the USSR, in contrast to most other countries, is to be found closely tied up with the implications of the planned economy itself. In order to plan the actual price of a particular commodity, it would be imperative to have an extensive factual knowledge concerning the extent of available natural resources and other factors. A mastery of the intricacies of the national financial plan and the credit system would be just as essential. Without actually planning prices, however, it is possible to arrive at a general understanding of the interplay of factors. The relative importance of various national considerations can be roughly estimated as the planned economy shows growth in size and scope.

Planning in such a way as to speed up the growth of the national economy adds complexity to the situation, for it means that basic readjustments are continually having to be made. As the major problems facing the nation are dealt with, their relative importance diminishes, while other issues become the center of attention. During the first Five-Year Plan emphasis was on the construction of heavy industry. Now more attention is being paid to increasing consumption. A decision as to how menacing is the danger of the “capitalist encirclement” must be reflected in the production schedules of the entire national economy, and consequently in prices. Now that economic and

military strength have been assured, questions of distribution and consumption are taking the center of the stage.

Price Fixing

A frugal American housewife would have to change her buying tactics in a Soviet marketing district. She might still go the rounds from one store to another, but she would find no special sales to reward her efforts. To her dismay she would discover that all similar commodities are sold for the same price in all the stores.

Who sets the prices? The store manager may point to the price list, always in full view of the customers. These are the prices at which he must sell. He is powerless to change them. Even if he should contract for supplies from a different wholesaler, or otherwise receive his goods from other producers and manufacturers—still he would have to sell the same items at the same price as his “competitors.” While this store manager and all others have been consulted in calculating planned prices, they did not determine what the prices would be. Prices on certain goods are planned and established by the trusts under which a particular store is organized. Other commodities are priced by higher planning bodies which have jurisdiction throughout an entire Soviet republic. A few commodities, which for one reason or another are considered to be of particular national significance, have their prices fixed “straight from Moscow” for all parts of the Soviet Union. Thus, all the prices which the consumer pays are fixed, for sales by state and co-operative stores throughout the Soviet Union.

It would be incorrect to assume that prices on identical items are always the same, subject only to nation-wide long-term plans for continuing the improvement of the standard of living, under which, generally speaking, planned prices are lowered in connection with planned increases in consumption. In addition to these changes in price, there are both regional and seasonal variations in prices paid by the consumer.

Any one of a number of considerations may be the cause for regional differentiation in the price of similar articles. For instance, to discourage unnecessary overburdening of the railroads, the price on bulky articles such as furniture, may be

planned to include stiff transportation costs. Such a policy would be influential in persuading furniture stores to avail themselves of the nearest source of supply. Perishable goods, which involve a large additional expense through spoilage in transit, are more expensive at the point of destination than where grown.

It is not necessarily true, however, in all cases, that transportation costs and losses incurred must be covered by the price of the commodity. Other considerations may be of greater importance. The basic necessity, salt, for instance, is sold at identical prices all over the Soviet Union, regardless of transportation charges. The price of wheat in far-away Uzbekistan, is actually cheaper than it is several thousand miles away, where it is grown. The Soviet Union has few regions like Uzbekistan where cotton can be grown successfully. But the Uzbek people cannot eat cotton and would use some of their valuable land to grow their own wheat supply, if it were not shipped to them and sold at a very reasonable price.

Seasonal changes in price effect not only fruits and vegetables, but also, to a certain extent, non-perishable goods which are not in demand the year around. Here, even though spoilage is not a factor, other expenses in connection with carrying over and storing seasonal stock have to be calculated.

In the Far Eastern District of the Soviet Union wages and salaries are generally higher than in the European districts. At the same time, manufactured goods for consumption are generally more expensive than in the West. Whether or not there is any causal relationship between these facts, they are both significant observations which need to be examined together with the other factors bearing upon Soviet price policy.

In the case of any particular commodity, it would be almost impossible to explain satisfactorily the reasons for the extent of regional price differentiations unless one were well-acquainted with both the general situation and the particular circumstances. In this brief survey, suffice it to state that the factors to be considered in price planning are numerous and seem to warrant setting different prices for similar commodities sold at different seasons in different regions. This practise is not in contradiction to the concept of planned Soviet prices.

Component Parts of Price

Having touched upon some of the general considerations of time and place which may necessitate variations in planned prices, let us now examine the price itself. The component parts of the price the consumer pays can be shown as follows:

- | | | |
|---|---|--------------------------|
| 1) production costs
(raw material, use of machines, labor, etc.) | } | factory release
price |
| 2) factory's "planned profit" | | |
| 3) state tax (or else a subsidy) | | |

- | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|-----------------|
| 1) factory release price | } | wholesale price |
| 2) wholesaler's costs of handling | | |
| 3) wholesaler's "planned profit" | | |

- | | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|--------------|
| 1) wholesale price | } | retail price |
| 2) retailer's costs of distribution | | |
| 3) retailer's "planned profit" | | |

For agricultural produce, the component parts of the ultimate retail price are roughly similar. Instead of a factory release price, there is the price at which the produce-collecting bodies turn over the foods to the wholesalers. As in the case of industrial goods, the state tax is already included by the time the wholesale organizations receive the goods.

Sometimes there are more steps between production and consumption than indicated in the diagram—sometimes there are less. But whether an additional small-order wholesaler operates in the field, or whether or not a large store receives shipments direct from one factory, the method by which distribution costs are calculated remains the same. All organizations concerned are operated upon a cost accounting basis under the plan. They all strive to operate as inexpensively as possible with the maximum amount of efficiency, as they want to keep out of the red and gain additional advantages from overfulfilling their plan.

Costs of Distribution

The net result of these concerted efforts made by the distributing agencies is what appears to be ridiculously expensive distribution expenses for Soviet trade throughout the

Union. The Soviets boast of an average mark-up above factory release price of a mere eight or nine per cent of the nation's retail volume of sales. That such a small fraction of the consumers' ruble should cover expenses of distribution does not indicate, however, that the actual amounts spent in distribution are "ridiculously" small. For instance, a bottle of vodka sells for about four rubles. If ten per cent of this amount goes for distribution expenses, that is equivalent to forty kopeks. Now let us suppose that the actual cost of producing this bottle of vodka was only about thirty kopeks. Then, if there had been no state tax included, the price the consumer paid would be not four rubles, but only 70 kopeks (30 for production plus 40 for distribution). The mark-up would have been not a mere 10 per cent but 57 per cent of the selling price.

Of course, many governments exact as high if not higher taxes on liquor. But the Soviet government taxes numerous other commodities as well. The fact that the chief source of income for the large Soviet state budget comes from the commodity tax is of sufficient significance to help explain why the mark-up on Soviet prices can be so "unbelievably" low.

(Incidentally, this discussion of the mark-up shows how easy it is for an unsuspecting person, unacquainted with the ins and outs of Soviet economy to doubt the validity of Soviet statistics, just because they sometimes seem "fantastic" as viewed from experience in a capitalist economy.)

This examination of the Soviet distribution system is not made with a view to evaluating its efficiency. Our interest in it is only as it concerns the formation of planned prices. All the various direct and indirect expenses of distribution must be taken into consideration when commodity prices are being planned, but as has been indicated, the determining factor in price planning is neither expense of distribution nor cost of production—it is the state tax.

Turn-Over Tax

In the Soviet state budget for 1937 the commodity tax accounted for 78.3 per cent of the total receipts. This "turn-over tax" is paid not only by the consumers who buy in the stores, but it is shared indirectly even by those peasants who buy little

outside of their own bazaars. The peasants pay their share of the tax realized on the sale of commodities when they make the compulsory produce deliveries which they sell to the state at low fixed prices. Instead of making city workers pay a "high" price for bread, the tax burden in this case is partly shifted to the rural population by paying them a "low" price for their grain deliveries to the state.

The commodity tax, then, is really a tax levied upon the entire population, although it does not fall upon all indiscriminately, since luxury commodities are usually taxed most heavily. Many of the types of taxation which are familiar in other countries obviously could not be applied in a socialist economy, for there are no private business enterprises, no private fortunes, and no private property in land. Under the circumstances, perhaps the commodity tax is the most logical form of taxation to use. At any rate it is one of the easiest to apply, as it is levied at the source of production and realized automatically when the commodity is purchased by the consumer.

Planned Consumption

The Soviet government has unusually large expenditures, necessitating large sources of revenue. In the Soviet budget, one of the smallest items of expenditure is the maintenance of the state apparatus. The three major items of expenditure in the 1937 budget were: financing the national economy, accounting for 40.8 per cent; socio-cultural undertakings, which made up 27.4 per cent of the total; and national defense accounting for 20.7 per cent. Admitting that the defense program and industrial developments for the socialist economy require both state financing and control, one might question the necessity of spending over one-fourth of the total state budget on social services. To the "rugged individualist" this practise might seem offensive, for it amounts to taking money away from the citizen in order to spend it for him in whatever manner his state considers best for him. But in a socialist economy, social considerations have precedence. The success of the future demands large investment, not only in industry, but also in foresighted socio-cultural measures. Subsidies are needed for building schools and clubs, movie houses and theatres, rest homes and sanatoria.

They are needed for opening new parks and for encouraging sports. All this is considered to be more important than leaving it all up to the individual to consume goods and services in a non-constructive manner, yielding little more than immediate satisfaction.

The situation boils down to this: it is necessary for the state to spend a large part of its resources in capital re-investment and in national defense—leaving a limited amount of buying power with the consumer citizen. Of this amount, it is to the interests of the nation and state to see to it that comrade Average Citizen chooses to go to the movies instead of getting drunk. His wife is influenced to accompany him, because even if she wanted to stay home and bake bread, it would not pay because of the competition from the mechanized bakeries.

The national economic plan not only controls the total available funds for consumption, but it must give this consumption direction, in keeping with the social ends in view. This is done by consciously encouraging the consumer in certain directions, while discouraging him from others. Here the planning of the prices of consumers' goods plays a double role, direct and indirect. The drunkard is discouraged by the high price of liquor, but if he insists—well then he is automatically paying a stiff tax to the government, perhaps making possible a more extensive radio campaign against drunkenness.

Of course, there are logical limits to price persuasion as a means for educating the Soviet public. While this type of encouragement may be used to make the citizen buy a pair of skis before he can afford a second good pair of shoes, sometimes the intended persuasion "goes astray." This is evidenced by instances where musical strings were bought for wire, snow suit jackets for every-day wear, and fishing tackle for strong string.

Price Adjustments

One may wonder why this intricate system of planned prices is not disrupted by the presence of rural bazaars (collective farm markets), which do an extensive business selling their own produce for whatever price they can get. It is true that occasionally the state and cooperative stores in a particular

locality fall short in their efforts to supply produce to their customers. Perhaps the supply of state pasteurized milk is inadequate in the stores, or vegetables have been allowed to wilt through delays in delivery. In such situations, the rural bazaars are able to ask higher prices. Usually, however, the stores are able to maintain a position in the market sufficiently strong to dominate and to force the bazaars in line with planned prices. On goods whose quality cannot readily be determined by the consumers, the full state price is seldom offered at the bazaars.

Nonetheless, planned prices cannot be pegged to "hold their own" for more than a short time. What then do planned prices really amount to, if they can so easily be pushed out of their dominating position and forced to readjust themselves? Are they worth all the trouble of calculating the relative weight of all the actual costs and various national aims?

Planned prices cannot be determined arbitrarily: nor should they be expected always to "dominate." They should be considered what might be termed a focal point in a dynamic planned economy. When the adjustment of the national and local considerations which make up the "focus" is well planned, the focal point can be readily determined and the prices planned accurately.

In other words, when the planned adjustment necessary to make a Soviet planned economy operate efficiently is at all lacking, planned prices lose part of their "domain" and fall under the influence of the law of supply and demand. Of course, even the temporary or localized presence of this familiar law indicates an inadequacy or maladjustment somewhere in the plan.

Nor should it be regretted that this law is always lurking behind the scenes in the Soviet Union, threatening to make its appearance wherever supply and demand are not properly adjusted under the plan. Because of this ever-present threat, prices must be planned correctly. They must be the logical result of the existing situation. It is impossible even under socialism to sell something for five rubles when no one would be willing to pay more than one ruble for it. And it is just as difficult to maintain a price of one ruble on an article which easily can be

sold for five rubles. Soviet planned prices sometimes find themselves in such predicaments.

Usually such maladjustments can be ironed out with little trouble. When Moscovites consistently refused to pay the price asked for oranges and lemons, the prices were forced to be pegged at lower levels, to avoid a total loss through spoilage. Other less perishable goods may be re-allocated within the trade network to meet demand where it is located. Or an educational campaign may be influential in introducing a useful article with which the consumer may not be familiar, as was done in the case of cornflakes, canned milk and oatmeal. This "education" of the consumer may be aided by subsidies making it possible to sell a new commodity cheaper than other comparable goods. Soviet canned corn is not only much cheaper than other tinned vegetables, but it is "pushed" also by means of extensive advertising.

The campaign to sell more soap, in 1936, without lowering prices resulted in failure, as far as increasing the sales was concerned. Extensive advertising and sales promotion activities, even with the cooperation of the department of health, did not produce the desired effect. Efforts were even made to make the population feel ashamed: statistics were presented, indicating the low consumption of soap in the USSR, compared with other countries. All local maladjustments in the soap supply were corrected; and even though people became "soap conscious" and knew that their friends would like them to use more soap—they refused to buy more. During the past year, however, the quality of Soviet soap has greatly improved, and its planned prices have been considerably lowered. Now the population has greatly increased its per capita consumption of soap and has successfully "saved its face."

When planned prices are too low to effect a satisfactory adjustment between planned supply and planned demand, they result in speculation and artificial scarcity. Nothing remains on the shelves of the stores, sales plans are automatically fulfilled with no concern whatsoever for the customer, and the state loses thousands of rubles which might have been poured into its coffers instead of into the hands of the speculators. All this

might have been avoided had prices been planned a little higher.

But the general policy of the Soviet Government is to lower prices slowly but steadily, to make way for increases in production and consumption. Wherever it can be avoided, therefore, prices that are "too low" for a huge demand are not raised. The only other way that the needed adjustment can be obtained is to increase the supply to a point where it will absorb the demand at the planned price.

Sometimes this alternative is not open, because of national considerations. Large supplies of iron and leather are needed for the Red Army, which doubtless places limits on the production of shoes and household utensils for sale to the public. In 1936, the demand for these commodities at the prices offered was so large that it became necessary to raise prices. Even with these changes, a "scarcity" still continues. (The artificiality of this "scarcity" is exemplified by the fact that the Soviet Union manufactures 20 times the quantity of shoes produced in 1914.)

These examples indicate that while the forces of supply and demand are captive under the jurisdiction of the national economic plan, at the same time they are forces which cannot be overlooked in Soviet commodity price planning.

A recent official statement of the Council of People's Commissars, issued February 2, 1938, emphasizes that "the most important task of the State Planning Commission is to guarantee for the national economic plan of the U.S.S.R. the correct inter-relationship for its different branches, and to take the necessary steps to prevent a disproportion in the national economy. . . ." In coping with this task, Soviet planned commodity prices are playing an ever-important role. This is their chief function in the planned economy today.

GENERAL AIMS OF SOVIET EDUCATION

By

WILLIAM H. JOHNSON*

I THEORY

Soviet education is frankly social in character, as socialist education was defined from the start. In the first work of scientific socialism, the Communist Manifesto, Marx declared that "the Communists have not invented the intervention of society in education; they do but seek to alter the character of that intervention and to rescue education from the influence of the ruling class." And further on, in the same document, free education for all children in public schools and the combination of education with industrial production are listed among the ten immediate aims for the struggle of the proletariat of all countries. This conception laid the basis for a theory of social education which Marx further developed in a series of works, based on his conclusion that "the mode of production in material life determines the social, political and intellectual life processes in general; it is not the consciousness of men that determines their being, but, on the contrary, it is their social being that determines their consciousness."

It was not until 1866 that Marx suggested the three fundamental points which today characterize the aims of education in the Soviet Union:

Under education we understand three things:

1. Mental education
2. Physical education, such as is given in gymnastic schools and military institutions
3. Polytechnical instruction, acquainting the pupil with the general principles of all production processes and at the same time giving the child and youth practical habits in the usage of the simpler tools of all trades.

(Resolutions of the First Congress of the First International.)

It has remained for the Soviet Union to apply the program Marx envisaged when he wrote "the education of the future . . . will be an education, which, in the case of every child over a certain age, will combine productive labor with instruction and physical culture, not only as a means for increasing

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social production, but as the only way of producing fully developed human beings."

V. I. Lenin further developed the Marxian science in its application to education, declaring that communism "wages a struggle for bringing-up, educating and training harmoniously developed human beings, capable of doing everything." In his address to the Young Communist League in 1920 he laid down the basic principles on which Soviet education is founded, and established the general aims toward which it must strive. He stated that the task of building the communist social order lay upon the shoulders of the youth, and that, from this point of view, "the tasks of the youth in general and of the Young Communist League and all other organizations in particular, may be summed up in one word: learn." Communism, he said, can be built only on the basis of modern education, and the methods, content and organization of instruction and training must be worked over and remolded, so that "the whole object of the training, education and tuition of the youth today shall be to imbue them with communist ethics." And Lenin defined this communist ethic as "that which serves to destroy the old exploiting society and to unite all the toilers around the proletariat, which is creating a new communist society."

The communist world-view could be instilled in the youth, Lenin held, not through "sentimental speeches and moral precepts," but "only by inseparably linking up every step in training, education and tuition with the struggle of the toilers against the exploiters." Here the greatest emphasis is laid on social education, in the development of the communist world-view, on preparing citizens to take part in the building of a new social order.

Turning, now, to the *Program of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union*, once more the concrete aim of education in the Soviet Union is seen to be the educating of highly developed all-around citizens who can carry on the work of establishing the classless communist society.

In the sphere of education, the Communist Party of the Soviet Union has set itself the task of completing the work begun with the Revolution of October, 1917, of transforming the school from

a weapon of class rule of the bourgeoisie into an instrument for the complete abolition of the division of society into classes, into an instrument for the communist regeneration of society.

During the period of the proletarian dictatorship, i.e., during the period in which the conditions which will make the complete realization of communism possible are being created, the school must not only be a vehicle of communist principles in general but a vehicle of the ideological, organizational and educational influence of the proletariat over the semi-proletarian and non-proletarian strata of the toiling masses for the purpose of educating a generation capable of finally establishing communism. (Eighth Congress of the Communist Party, March, 1919.)

During the early years of the Soviet regime, the first requisite was for the working class to put itself in the position to build a socialist society, and in this it was recognized that the role of students was undoubtedly important, if not actually paramount. Stalin, in analyzing the work in education said: "The colleges, universities, rabfacs and tekhnikums are schools for developing commanders in economy and culture. . . . It is impossible to build a new society without new leaders, just as it is impossible to build a new army without a new commanding staff."

When the first Five-Year Plan was put into operation in 1928, emphasis in education was shifted from political consciousness to the mastery of science.

In order to build it is necessary to have knowledge, to master science, and in order to have knowledge it is necessary to study. To study persistently and patiently. We must learn from everyone—both from our enemies and from our friends, especially from our enemies. We must learn, with clenched teeth, not fearing that our enemy will laugh at us, laugh at our ignorance and our backwardness. There stands before us a fortress. This fortress is called Science, with its many branches of learning. Come what may, we must capture this fortress. The youth must capture this fortress, if it hopes to be the builder of a new life." (Stalin.)

By 1930, the progress in national economy and socialist culture warranted a further step in the field of education. The main aim became the introduction of compulsory elementary education for the entire population, a step which had been physically impossible before. And by 1935 the old slogan "technique decides everything" was replaced by a new one: "cadres decide everything." In introducing this new emphasis, Stalin pointed out that "it is time to realize that of all the valuable capital the world possesses, the most valuable, the most de-

cisive is people, cadres." These words contained enormous educational significance, for they pointed up the fact that the aim of socialist construction is not the mere mastery of technique and the creation of a huge industry for its own sake, but that these material aims were considered of value only insofar as they contributed to the rise of the material and social standards of the working population.

In the new Soviet Constitution of 1936, Article 121 embodies the Soviet Government's interest in public education. Every citizen is guaranteed the right to free secular education at all levels from elementary school through the highest university. Citizens of Soviet Russia point out that never has a capitalist nation actually carried out such a program of education; they claim that the ruling classes of capitalists and landlords have no desire to educate the mass of toilers whose very ignorance makes easier their subjection and exploitation. Only a socialist state, they claim, desires and needs the fullest education for every citizen. Further, they argue, free complete education is a very expensive branch of government. Since the *guarantee* of free education obligates the state to pay for it, only a state organized on the basis of a socialist national economy can afford such a program.

During the last six years the basic aims of the school, as conceived by the founders of Marxism-Leninism, have been incorporated into a series of legal decrees and directives of the Council of People's Commissars and the Central Committee of the Communist Party. In this manner they have been defined in law and put into practise by the various commissariats of education, the All-Union Committee on Higher Education and all administrative bodies of education in the other commissariats and trade unions. The educational work of the Communist Party itself, the Young Communist League, and kindred organizations have more or less the same general aims as does public instruction.

Two of the educational decrees are of particular importance. The first is that of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of September 5, 1931, stating in part:

In the period of socialism when the proletariat is accomplishing the final abolition of classes in conditions of the sharpening of the

class struggle, an enduring communist nurture in the Soviet school and the strengthening of the fight against all attempts to implant in the children of the Soviet school elements of anti-proletarian ideology assumes an exceptional importance. In connection with this, the Central Committee suggests that the Party organization strengthen the administration of the school and take under its direct supervision the matter of the teaching of the social-political subjects in the seven-year schools, the pedagogical tekhnikums and the pedagogical colleges.

This decree and its subsequent application was the starting point in the campaign to strengthen the social sciences in public education.

A second extremely important decree was that passed jointly by the Central Committee of the Communist Party and the Council of People's Commissars on May 15, 1934. This was based on a careful inspection by Party leaders of all history textbooks used in Soviet schools. The decree required that the teaching of history henceforth be related directly to life, that it be clearly chronological in order, and that it be taught in a way to arouse the interest of the pupil. It was decided that the old text books were inadequate and a prize of 100,000 rubles was offered to the authors of several new text books to be selected in an all-Union competition.

The theory of education, as outlined by Marx and his successors, and as applied today in the Soviet educational system, was summed up as follows by Professor Albert Pinkevich at the Bubnov Pedagogical Institute in a lecture delivered during the academic year 1936-37:

We must educate people who can work physically and mentally at the same time, people who have mastered all the knowledge which mankind possess, and at the same time are prepared for any kind of physical work, including defense of the fatherland. . . . Speaking of aims, we say that our aims are the aims of socialist construction as a whole, they are the aims which define the course of socialist construction. We want to develop a many-sided person, but such a many-sided person as will give back all his knowledge, all his talents to the working class for its struggle for socialism and communism. . . . If we should formulate our aims in short, aims which our Soviet school has set, then we should say: our education sets itself the task of creating all-round, active, determined possessors of knowledge and of the proletarian world-outlook, devoted to communism and communist morality, builders and defenders of a socialist society.

II THE PRACTISE

With the general aims outlined in theory, it is well to turn to an examination of how these aims guide the actual functions of the Soviet school system. The limitations of this article do not permit a detailed and exhaustive analysis of all the Soviet educational agencies. Therefore it will be confined to a brief study of the curriculum and methods of the Ten-Year School, which is the equivalent of the American elementary and secondary school.

First, let us glance at a few of the subjects studied by pupils in the Boys' Gymnasia of Old Russia at the outbreak of the World War. The basis of the eight-year (8375 hours) curriculum of such institutions consisted of Russian Language—1350 hours; Mathematics—1286 hours; and Latin Language—1030 hours. No other subjects received comparable emphasis. Latin was taught as a "dead language," by very much the same methods as were utilized in our own Latin Grammar Schools of the colonial period. Mathematics concerned itself chiefly with business arithmetic, and Russian was used as an implement to increase the disparity between the cultural level of the Great Russians and those of the numerous national minorities. Another essential of the Gymnasia curriculum was "God's Law," which, with the religious treatment of Philosophy, occupied 781 hours, or more than nine per cent of the total eight years of study. The lack of any broad social content in such a curriculum is obvious.

One of the first acts of the Soviet Government on coming into power in November, 1917, was an attempt to fit the schools to the immediate needs of the illiterate and ignorant masses. The school was not the only instrument used in raising the knowledge of the people to an elementary-school level, but this aim definitely influenced the policy of the Soviet school system from the First All-Union Educational Congress in January, 1918, until 1926, two years prior to the introduction of the first Five-Year Plan. During this hectic period of Civil War, Intervention, and "War Communism" the schools were able to do little more than teach the essentials of elementary education. The curriculum consisted of Reading, Writing, Arithmetic and Natural Science. Yet even at that time the content of the ma-

materials used permitted social education of a primitive sort. The stories read and sentences written involved no abstract themes, but were intimately concerned with the causes and aims of the Proletarian Revolution. The simple arithmetical and scientific material dealt with the production of a local factory, the harvest of the Soviet farms, and the growing trade union membership.

By 1926, the Seven-Year School had raised its teaching of the Natural Sciences to a higher level. The pupils now studied Geography, Nature Study, Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics. While the aim of this course of study was to lay a basis for technical knowledge, the fact that theory was usually linked to practise of production lifted this study from the realm of academics and placed it on a social plane. In addition, the curriculum included courses in Social Science, Russian and German. Such a course of study remained almost intact throughout what may be termed the second period of Soviet education, the years 1926 to 1932. The immediate aim of education during this period of the first Five-Year Plan was based on Lenin's slogan: "technique decides everything."

The close of this period was heralded by the September, 1931, decree of the Central Committee of the C.P.S.U., quoted above. The minimum level of technical knowledge was being reached by the pupils and the directive of the Party centered attention of the schools on "the teaching of social-political subjects." The pressure toward this end was gradually increased, culminating in 1935 in the new slogan: "cadres decide everything," which set the tone of the third period in Soviet education.

With the beginning of the academic year 1934-35, the course of study for the Ten-Year School was definitely established, although there since have been important revisions. In this curriculum, the weight was rather evenly divided between languages and social science on the one hand, and technical and physical sciences on the other. Out of the total 10,800 hours in the ten-year course, the major distribution was: Language cycle—3240 hours; Social Science cycle—1440 hours; Natural Science cycle—1840 hours; Mathematics—2020 hours; Polytechnical cycle—1160 hours. For the year 1936-37 a definite shift

toward giving the curriculum a social science basis was made by adding to the curriculum 200 additional hours of History and 40 hours for the study of the Soviet Constitution. In cutting the total hours in the course to 10,206, it was necessary to reduce the number of hours in the languages, but the almost complete abolition of Manual Training left the curriculum with a definite social science bias.

It should not be supposed, of course, that the social sciences alone offer an opportunity for social education in the sense that the term is used in this article. Professor Pinkevich has stated that "education in society and through society and for society constitutes *social education*. In other words, by social education we mean that education which aims to develop man first as a member of society and then as an individual." Soviet educators view the *approach* to a subject and the *method of teaching* it, as determining whether the individual, the purely technical or the social aspect is stressed. By these criteria any subject in the curriculum may be molded along social lines, and in the Soviet Union every subject is so molded.

The teaching of Russian Language and Literature may be taken as an example of this type of approach. Language in general is described as "an instrument of knowledge, the most important means of intercourse, a means of influence on our environment." Quite naturally, it is recognized that one's native language supersedes all others in social value. It serves as a means of all formal instruction in the school, of understanding the ideological and emotional content of language itself, and of introducing the pupil to literature. Therefore lexicology occupies an important place in the language course, and correct usage of grammar is stressed not for itself alone, but because it puts intercourse on a higher plane and creates the foundation for an appreciation of fine literature. In the course on Russian Literature, those authors are studied who give either a "true picture of the socialist reconstruction of our life" or who describe "their old capitalist country, how the workers and peasants lived under the capitalists and landlords." The authors studied in this course in the secondary schools include, among others, Pushkin, Turgenev, Nekrasov, Furmanov, Bedny, and Gorky. The pupil reads about and discusses in class the

author's period, his family and childhood, his participation in literary and political movements of the time, his relation to his surroundings, his work in general and particular selections from his writings, and finally, his influence on his own and subsequent periods.

For the foreign languages, Lenin himself gave Soviet pupils a social incentive when he remarked that "the study of foreign languages is one of the best means of building international proletarian solidarity." Therefore it is to be expected that these courses in the Soviet schools are designed not only to afford a knowledge of grammar, pronunciation and syntax but also to broaden the social outlook of the pupil. He must realize the vast possibilities which the knowledge of a foreign language may open up for his present and future profession. Yet the social value of such study goes even deeper than one's profession. It involves an appreciation of human struggle and achievement in all times and places. The course in English Language and Literature which the author of this article taught in the Moscow secondary schools demanded that the pupils receive much more than knowledge of the language itself. The pupils were to become acquainted with the mode of life, the daily affairs, the attitudes and customs of the people whose language they were studying. In the literature course, several lectures and discussions on the social character of the author's period invariably preceded the study of his works. In 1935, when the author of this article complained to the Commissariat of Education that he could not possibly cover the program's forty authors in one year, he was directed to cut the number of authors to fifteen or even ten in order to allow time for study of the social backgrounds. In this way a deliberate effort is made in such courses to lead the pupils to a full cognizance of the *social meanings* of language and literature.

Many more subjects could be used to illustrate the Soviet approach and methods in teaching. For instance, Geography and Singing are taught as social sciences. Enough has been said, however, to give the reader an idea of how the broad social aims of education are being carried out in the curriculum. It remains only to state that the recent concentration of the Party and Government educational authorities upon stabilizing the

Ten-Year School as the basic form of pre-college education offers tremendous possibilities for the further expansion of social education. It is not improbable that this was one of the factors which stimulated this policy, for we see that recent years have shown a decided trend in this direction. Illiteracy has been virtually eliminated, the technical ignorance of the working population has largely disappeared, and now Soviet education is able to establish a broad and deep program to train the youth for complete socialist citizenship.

REINHOLD GLIERE

By

NICOLAS SLONIMSKY*

Reinhold Glière belongs to the generation of Russian composers who even before the Revolution occupied a solid place in the history of Russian music. The Soviet period of Glière's creative work is marked by a change of subject matter rather than of musical texture. His music can, therefore, be taken as a fair example of a composer's transfiguration in the light of new revolutionary events. In this process of self-adaptation, Glière has been brilliantly successful while remaining true to his musical self, and now he can be classed among Soviet composers who express the inner essence of Soviet music: socialist realism in a national frame. The word *national* must be understood in an enlarged sense, and should include all the minorities of the component republics of the Soviet Union. Although Glière is primarily a composer of Russian music, he is the author of the opera *Shakh-Senem*, based on the folklore of the Turkic peoples of the Caucasus. In its orchestral score are introduced some native instruments, the *Tar*, which is a sort of guitar, and the *Kemancha*, a sort of violin played like a cello, on the knee. This opera was first produced in Baku in 1926.

Glière was also one of the first qualified Russian composers who contributed to the music of the masses, in his topical orchestral *Fantasy for the Festival of the Comintern* and *March of the Red Army*.

Glière was born on January 11, 1875, new style, in Kiev. In 1894, he entered the Moscow Conservatory. He studied composition with Arensky, Taneiev, and Ippolitov-Ivanov, and graduated in 1900 with a gold medal. In 1905, he went to Berlin for two years to complete his musical education. At that time he was already the composer of two symphonies and numerous compositions for chamber music, piano, and voice. His style was chiefly derived from the great national school of nineteenth-century Russia plus a surface layer of impressionism which was beginning to be a fashion at that time. As to form,

*Nicolas Slonimsky is a composer and the author of *Music since 1900*, as well as of many articles on Soviet music.

Glière always clung to the classical subdivision of movements and logical development of themes within each movement. Impressionism in form was never a temptation to him. It is in Glière's harmony that one may find a chord expansion that definitely places him among twentieth-century composers. There is a certain kinship with Scriabin, and the profusion of orchestral color with a prolixity of arpeggiated passages is characteristic of both composers.

The high point of Glière's pre-war music is reached in his Third Symphony, surnamed after the hero of the Russian epic, *Ilya Murometz*, which was first performed in Moscow in 1912. It is a grandiose work, one of the longest in symphonic literature.

In 1913, Glière became professor of composition at the Kiev Conservatory and was elected director in 1914. In 1920, he moved to Moscow and was engaged as professor of composition at the Moscow Conservatory. He was elected President of the Union of Soviet Composers in April, 1938. It was during this post-revolutionary period that he became interested in the ethnological material of the Soviet Orient. In the Proletcult, and later in the Communist University of the Workers of the Orient he performed valuable work on collecting authentic melodies of minority nations. In 1923, he was asked by the Commissariat of Education of Azerbaïdzhan to codify the melos of Caucasian tribes, the material which he used in his opera. During all this time, Glière never ceased to compose. His symphonic compositions of the post-revolutionary period include the symphonic poem *Cossacks of Zaporozh*, conducted for the first time by the composer himself in 1924 in Moscow. Inspired by the well-known painting of Repin (the Cossacks writing a defiant letter to the Turkish Sultan), it is a symphony of boisterous joy, effectively scored.

But perhaps the greatest glory of Glière is his ballet *Red Poppy*, written in 1926-1927, and first performed in Moscow on June 14, 1927. The story of the ballet may be described as a Soviet melodrama. A Soviet ship arrives in a Chinese port of call. A beautiful Chinese dancer watches the Soviet sailors as they help the Chinese coolies in their exhausting toil. The simplicity of the Soviet captain, so different from the Chinese

bosses, attracts her. The villain of the melodrama is her unscrupulous fiancé who leads a plot against the Soviet crew. When his designs are uncovered, he retreats. Harboring double hatred of the captain, as a rival in affection and a danger to his political ambitions, he forces the dancer to hand the captain a cup of poisoned wine. But the dancer knocks the cup out of the captain's hands at the last moment, and saves his life. For this, she is shot by her fiancé, and before her death, she hands a red poppy to the leaders of Chinese rebels as a symbol of the eventual victory of the Chinese working class.

The Soviet sailor's dance from *Red Poppy*, based on the tune *Yablochko* ("the little apple"), has become popular all over the world, and one hears it over the radio in America and in Europe.

Thus, Glière has combined the new Soviet thematics with Russian national folk music, and in this he has accomplished what Soviet composers consider their most important task, and what has been described as socialist realism in music.

List of Compositions of Reinhold Glière

- op. 1. Sextet for strings, C minor (1900)
- op. 2. String Quartet in A major (1900)
- op. 3. Romance for violin and piano (1902)
- op. 4. Ballad for violoncello and piano (1902)
- op. 5. Octet for Strings, D major (1900)
- op. 6. 3 Songs (1902)
- op. 7. 2d Sextet for Strings, B minor (1902)
- op. 8. 1st Symphony in E flat major (1899-1900). First performed in Moscow in 1902
- op. 9. 2 Pieces for double bass and piano (1903)
- op. 10. 6 Songs (1903)
- op. 11. 3rd Sextet for Strings, C major (1904)
- op. 12. 6 Songs (1903)
- op. 13. Suite for women's chorus and piano (1904)
- op. 14. 6 Songs (1904)
- op. 15. Scherzo for piano (1904)
- op. 16. 2 Pieces for piano (1904)
- op. 17. 5 Sketches for piano (1904)
- op. 18. 8 Songs (1904)
- op. 19. 3 Pieces for piano (1905)
- op. 20. 2d String Quartet, G minor (1905)
- op. 21. 3 Pieces for piano (1905)
- op. 22. Song for bass voice (1904)

- op. 23. 5 Songs (1905)
- op. 24. 6 Two-part children's choruses (1905)
- op. 25. 2d Symphony in C minor (1907). First performed in Berlin in 1907, Koussevitzky conducting.
- op. 26. 6 Pieces for piano (1906)
- op. 27. 7 Songs (1906)
- op. 28. 11 Songs (1906)
- op. 29. 3 Mazurkas for piano (1906)
- op. 30. Preludes in 5 books for piano (1907)
- op. 31. 12 Piano pieces for children (1907)
- op. 32. 2 Pieces for double bass and piano (1908)
- op. 33. *The Sirens*, symphonic poem (1908). First performed in Moscow in 1908, Cooper conducting.
- op. 34. 24 Character pieces for piano (1908)
- op. 35. Miscellaneous pieces for different instruments (1908)
- op. 36. 6 Songs (1908)
- op. 37. 4 Two-part children's choruses (1908)
- op. 38. 24 Easy pieces for piano, four hands (1908)
- op. 39. 8 Pieces for violin and cello (1909)
- op. 40. 2 Sketches for piano (1909)
- op. 41. 6 Pieces for 2 pianos (1909)
- op. 42. *Ilya Murometz*, 3d Symphony in B minor (1909-1911). First performed in Moscow in 1912, Cooper conducting.
- op. 43. 8 Easy piano pieces (1909)
- op. 44. 4 Songs (1908)
- op. 45. 12 Easy pieces for violin and piano (1909)
- op. 46. 4 Songs (1909)
- op. 47. 12 Sketches for piano (1909)
- op. 48. 12 Pieces for piano, four hands (1909)
- op. 49. 12 Duos for 2 violins (1909)
- op. 50. 2 Songs (1909)
- op. 51. 12 Pieces for violoncello and piano (1910)
- op. 52. 12 Songs (1911)
- op. 53. 10 Duos for 2 cellos (1911)
- op. 54. 7 Instructive pieces for violin and piano (1911)
- op. 55. 2 Choruses for women's voices (1911)
- op. 56. 3 Sketches for piano (1911)
- op. 57. 7 Songs (1911)
- op. 58. 7 Songs (1912)
- op. 59. 7 Songs (1912)
- op. 60. 2 Poems for soprano and orchestra (1924)
- op. 61. 24 Pieces for 2 pianos (1912)
- op. 62. 7 Songs (1912)
- op. 63. 12 Songs (1913)
- op. 64. *Cossacks of Zaporozh*, symphonic poem (1921). First performed in Moscow in 1924, Glière conducting.
- op. 65. *Chrysis*, ballet pantomime (1912). First performed in Moscow in 1912.

op. 66. *Trizna*, symphonic poem (1915)

op. 67. 3d String Quartet (1928)

Compositions Without the Opus Number

Shakh-Senem, opera in 4 acts (1923-1925). First performed in Baku in 1926.

Cleopatra, ballet-mimodrama (1925). First performed in Moscow in 1925.

Comedians, ballet (1922,1930). First performed in Moscow in 1930.

Red Poppy, ballet (1926-1937). First performed in Moscow in 1927.

Incidental music to *Lysistrata*, Aristophanes (1923). First performed in Moscow in 1923.

Incidental music to *Oedipus King*, Sophocles (1921). First performed in Moscow in 1921.

Incidental music to *Marriage of Figaro*, Beaumarchais (1927). First performed in 1927.

Incidental music to *Chan-Hai-Tans*

3 Songs

Death, character pieces for piano (1917)

Quartet for men's voices (1923)

Septet for mixed chorus (1918)

Ukrainian songs for mixed chorus (1918)

For the Festival of the Comintern, Fantasy for wind orchestra (1924)

March of the Red Army for wind orchestra (1924)

Imitation of Ezekiel, symphonic poem for narrator and orchestra (1919)

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTES



Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin

Mikhail Ivanovich Kalinin was born of poor peasants in the village of Verkhnaia Troitsa, in the Province of Tver (now Kalinin Province) on November 7, 1875. He attended village school there but could not afford to continue his education. He was apprenticed to a neighboring landlord who took Misha to St. Petersburg when he was fourteen years old. There he went to a factory school during the day and educated himself at night. In 1895, he entered the Putilov Works as a turner. The decade prior to 1896 was marked by a series of strikes led in many instances by social-democratic workers. In this atmosphere, Kalinin observed and absorbed much. He soon became a revolutionary and began extensive agitational work among the factory employees. In 1898, he became a member of the Union for the Struggle of the Liberation of the Working Class, an organization that had gained much influence among factory workers and had been instrumental in lowering the working day to 11½ hours. In 1898, this organization took on political form when the Russian Social-Democratic Labor Party was established, composed largely of members from the Union for the Struggle for the Liberation of the Working Class.

Between 1898 and 1905, Kalinin carried on active revolutionary work for which he was arrested a number of times and exiled on one occasion to the Caucasus and on another to Reval. Only the outbreak of the Russo-Japanese War saved him from being sent in exile to Eastern Siberia. In 1903, when the Russian Social-Democratic Labor Party split into two factions, Bolsheviks and Mensheviks, Kalinin sided with the Bolsheviks. In 1905, he was sent as a delegate to the Fourth Party Congress in Stockholm. From 1905 to 1912, Kalinin carried on ceaseless revolutionary agitational work among munitions and other factory workers in Moscow and St. Petersburg. During this period, he was arrested repeatedly and was sent to his home in exile. There he wasted little time before undertaking revolutionary work among the poor peasants.

During the World War, Kalinin worked in a factory in

which he was able to do effective agitational work, keeping in touch at all times with the Central Committee of the Bolshevik Party. In 1916, Kalinin, by now considered by the Tsarist police as "irredeemable," was arrested for the fourteenth time and served a year's sentence. He escaped from jail just before he was to be exiled to Eastern Siberia.

By this time Kalinin's influence among the working people was considerable. During the October Revolution, Kalinin worked closely with Lenin. His value to the Party was greatly enhanced by his intimate knowledge of the problems and desires of the peasants. In 1919, at the behest of Lenin, Kalinin was elected President of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, as the man best suited for the job of welding worker and peasant closer together. In 1923, with the formation of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics, Kalinin became a Chairman of the Central Executive Committee of the USSR. Since 1919, he has been a member of the Central Committee of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union. In the same year he became a candidate to the Political Bureau (Politbureau), and since 1925, he has been a full member.

During the period of the collectivization of agriculture, Kalinin took an active part in working among the peasants and explaining the significance of collective farming to them. On his sixtieth birthday, he was awarded the Order of Lenin; and on January 17, 1938, Kalinin was elected Chairman of the Presidium of the Supreme Soviet of the USSR, as a deputy from the Leningrad City District.



Konstantin Sergeevich Stanislavsky

Konstantin Sergeevich Stanislavsky, whose family name is Alexeev, was born in Moscow on January 17, 1863, the son of a wealthy manufacturer and owner of an old mercantile firm. His home was a cultural center for many of the prominent writers, musicians, painters and actors of the day. From his earliest years, Konstantin Sergeevich showed an aptitude and great interest in theatricals. Encouraged by his parents, he entered the dramatic school of the Imperial Maly Theatre, where he studied under the leading actor-teachers. Shortly after leaving the school, Stanislavsky started an amateur the-

atrical group which gave performances of plays, operettas and operas in his home. By directing and acting in most of these plays, he became familiar with all phases of the stage and his interest in the theory and technique of acting and directing grew.

At that time there was another cultural center in the home of the philanthropist Mamontov. With this and other amateur dramatic circles within his social set, Stanislavsky in 1888 formed the Society of Art and Literature out of which the Moscow Art Theatre was to be formed a decade later. During the ten years of activity of the Society of Art and Literature, Stanislavsky played numerous roles, revealing unusual versatility, as well as an ability to criticize his own interpretations in the light of his gradually evolving standards for good acting.

In 1897, Stanislavsky met V. I. Nemirovich-Danchenko, playwright, critic and head of the theatre school of the Moscow Philharmonic Society. Together, on October 14, 1898, they formed the Moscow Art Theatre, composed of Stanislavsky's troupe of amateurs and Nemirovich-Danchenko's pupils. The original agreement, which still stands, gave Nemirovich-Danchenko the last word on literary matters, and Stanislavsky the veto in artistic matters. The founding of the Moscow Art Theatre represented a complete break with the conventional acting and the star system of that period, when top names were featured and so-called good acting was a slavish imitation of the technique of the best-known actors. Stanislavsky, long repelled by the artificiality and pompousness of the current acting, introduced the repertory system into the Moscow Art Theatre and proceeded from the start to work toward the development of a theatre based on realistic interpretations of worth-while plays, old and new.

From 1898 to 1906, the Moscow Art Theatre produced plays by Chekhov, Turgenev, Tolstoi, Andreev, Gogol, Ostrovsky, Gorky, Hamsun, Ibsen, Shakespeare and Maeterlinck. Anton Chekhov's plays were for the first time performed on the professional stage and attained great popularity. The sea gulls on the curtain of the Moscow Art Theatre are symbolic of the profound appreciation and interpretation extended to Chekhov's works by this theatre.

During the period of the Russo-Japanese War, the plays of the Moscow Art Theatre, especially *The Lower Depths* and *Children of the Sun*, both by Gorky, were considered too radical by Tsarist officials and the theatre was threatened with arrest. As a result, in 1906, the whole troupe went to Berlin.

After the Bolshevik Revolution, the Moscow Art Theatre found itself facing an entirely new audience. However, all through the turbulent days of the period of civil war and intervention, it continued to function with only occasional lapses due to circumstances beyond its power. In the early years of the Soviet regime, the theatre continued along traditional lines. The only long break in the performances of the theatre came in 1923 when the troupe visited America for an extended tour.

In his forty years with the Moscow Art Theatre, now the Moscow Art Academic Theatre in the name of Gorky, Stanislavsky has played 27 roles and produced over 50 plays. Best known of his roles were his portrayals of such difficult character parts as Astrov in Chekhov's *Uncle Vanya*; Trigorin in Chekhov's *Sea Gull*; Dr. Stockmann in Ibsen's *An Enemy of the People*; and Satin in Gorky's *Lower Depths*. However, he is best known to the world for his development of a system of acting and of teaching dramatics, called the Stanislavsky System. An account of this system is to be found in Stanislavsky's books, *My Life in Art* and *An Actor Prepares*. Briefly, this system, which is now the basis of all dramatic teaching in Moscow, is based on an extreme simplicity in acting which permits the audience easily to follow the acting and to comprehend fully the idea that the author wished to convey. To this end, Stanislavsky insists that the actor behave simply and naturally on the stage. Before giving any performance the actor must be thoroughly imbued with the personality and inner thoughts of the character whom he is to depict on the stage; he must project himself into a "creative mood." The actor must "live that person's thoughts and feelings, penetrate his psychology."

The Moscow Art Academic Theatre, which is considered to have reached the pinnacle of realistic art, has, during the second half of its existence, produced a number of plays by Soviet writers. Chief among these are K. Trenev's *Pugachev Rebellion*, Vs. Ivanov's *Armored Train*, A. Korneichuk's *Platon Krechet*,

N. Virta's *Land*, and so forth. All of these have been under the immediate direction of Stanislavsky and Nemirovich-Danchenko. In late years, as far as his health permits, Stanislavsky occupies himself almost entirely with training a new generation of actors and directors at his own studio, which is now a state theatrical education institution, and with occasional directing of productions for the Moscow Art Opera Studio named for Stanislavsky. His popularity with the mass of Soviet theatre-goers was apparent from the numerous tributes paid to his work and to his genius during recent months when he received the Order of Lenin, the Order of the Red Banner of Labor and was given the title of People's Artist of the USSR.

APPENDIX

Soviet Foreign Trade Statistics for 1937

IMPORTS

<i>Country</i>	<i>Principal Article of Import in 9 mos. of 1937</i>	1936		1937	
		<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>
United States	Iron & Steel Sheet & Tubes	164150	209025	280562	244305
Germany	Lathes	104574	308463	99786	200501
Great Britain	Rubber	138535	204268	111767	191992
Holland	Tin	32417	72722	43372	105299
Iran	Cotton	110019	91106	83839	84780
Belgium-Luxembourg	Copper	68565	47058	45230	67320
Canada	Nickel	1517	3243	20822	54936
Japan	Ships	187560	61968	303238	54375
Mongolia	Cattle	42635	32120	46302	33694
Australia	Wool	15652	24969	13878	32362
Turkey	Wool	21025	18059	18821	28630
France	Perfumes	42105	42117	17453	28311
Western China	Cattle	28498	25671	28990	25774
Spain	Lead	4195	2813	49153	22728
Sweden	Ball-bearings	7653	17985	7270	17408
Afghanistan	Wool	5912	22034	7441	16995
Eastern China	Wolfram	8881	12791	9882	14958
Czechoslovakia	Sheet Metal	51739	43219	14544	13611
South African Union	Copper	644	2137	4945	10776
Lithuania	Cattle	12067	13105	10066	10624
Switzerland	Lathes	1051	11033	729	7208
Estonia	Cattle	3244	4106	6841	5956
Poland	Sheet Metal	27645	8664	12748	4467
Italy and Colonies	Seeds	1780	5835	2439	4207
Finland	Paper Machines	5227	3637	2619	3833
Norway	Abrasives	7691	2257	3748	3206
Greece	Tobacco	1736	2445	2266	2390
Denmark	Rags	5830	8680	37	103
Total		1155257	1352535	1285761	1341255

EXPORTS

Country	Principal Article of Export in 9 mos. of 1937	1936		1937	
		Tons	Thousand Rubles	Tons	Thousand Rubles
Great Britain	Lumber	2870021	361688	3271467	566145
United States	Fur	857096	130091	828186	134412
Belgium-Luxembourg	Lumber	1118636	88235	1357815	129576
Holland	Lumber	845253	53863	949879	111888
Germany	Lumber	1514588	116624	937285	107658
Spain	Cotton	194664	29932	457904	92444
Iran	Textiles	225571	63393	243318	91730
France	Lumber	1107561	102957	1004725	87255
Mongolia	Flour	105039	50433	123408	65822
Western China	Cotton Textiles	22786	36145	25733	34753
Turkey	Cotton Textiles	88558	19575	94929	33809
Sweden	Oil	350047	21105	241649	19420
Norway	Manganese	140162	9685	184766	17583
Afghanistan	Cotton Textiles	15746	16277	20142	17017
Denmark	Oil	228925	19839	144076	16879
Czechoslovakia	Iron Ore	64314	10247	308032	16600
Italy and Colonies	Anthracite	831067	42567	242232	16572
Lithuania	Lumber	356209	13021	298076	15831
Egypt		225814	14029	183942	12395
Poland	Iron Ore	144460	14568	262633	13046
South African Union	Lumber	82796	6823	85913	11576
Greece	Coal	309046	13152	169014	11057
Finland	Lumber	167230	7624	156924	9357
British India and Ceylon		193201	13349	105392	8711
Estonia	Iron & Steel Profiles	107441	7430	68336	7267
Switzerland	Anthracite	71703	4442	52186	5190
Canada	Anthracite	81	783	154138	4240
Eastern China	Pig Iron	3654	573	5691	623
Australia		125	52	46	29
Total		14204037	1359104	12969358	1728634

PRINCIPAL IMPORTS

<i>Article</i>	<i>Principal Source in 9 months of 1937</i>	1936		1937	
		<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>
Iron & Steel Sheets & Tubes	United States	282932	113919	237772	116196
Copper Ore	United States	45260	51188	65294	111732
Lathes	Germany	35631	177707	25445	108869
Raw Wool	Turkey	25892	61032	29066	86373
Tin	Holland	9820	52320	12507	82737
Rubber	Great Britain	31464	60484	30951	77419
Domestic Animals	Mongolia	103396	54740	89049	46104
Nickel	Canada	7538	33912	9076	40600
Raw Cotton	Iran	16665	23873	21054	33936
Hides	Mongolia	19136	28524	16304	28609
Tea	Japan	12257	23161	15191	28358
Cooking & Distilling Machinery		4182	14840	8493	28247
Lead	Spain	29744	15458	42423	28094
Raw Furs	Iran	784	30573	709	23528
Ships		21813	30052	29082	21412
Precision Instruments	Germany	1143	28590	609	19183
Fruits	Spain	17664	14007	40922	18542
Rags (Wool)	Great Britain	8883	12011	9492	17957
Paper & Cellulose Machinery	Germany	6026	13033	10057	17370
Molybdenum	Belgium-Luxembourg	36	72	3567	17314
Radio & Television Apparatus	United States	147	3639	639	16085
Seeds for Fodder Crops (Lucerne Grass)	United States	4474	8145	6909	13746
Sisal	Holland	16039	11388	17826	13151
Cocoa Beans	Great Britain	7063	5221	11143	12577
Oil Products	United States	47306	5955	109657	12460
Jute	Great Britain	21729	11062	23695	12010
Internal Combustion Engines	United States	4224	17896	1684	9445
Rice	Iran	52580	12121	35776	6891
Leather Products	Iran	2556	13175	1240	6869
Fish	Iran	30255	14496	14593	6111
Dyes, etc.	Germany	1359	11594	793	4982
Ferro-Alloys	Great Britain	2617	18307	219	1554

PRINCIPAL EXPORTS

<i>Article</i>	<i>Principal Market in 9 months of 1937</i>	1936		1937	
		<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>	<i>Tons</i>	<i>Thousand Rubles</i>
Lumber & Manufactures	Great Britain	6044189	359466	5103268	437790
Grains (4)	Great Britain	321311	35583	1276756	257353
Furs	Great Britain	2599	155133	1778	153643
Petroleum & Products	Great Britain	2665309	150834	1929147	150051
Cotton Textiles	Iran	17388	61425	20005	71810
Flax	Great Britain	58955	81377	36507	54794
Raw Cotton	Spain			38478	51752
Manganese	United States	605733	21143	1000805	50857
Sugar	Iran	162848	33140	134023	35139
Butter	Great Britain	23177	42119	14622	31827
Coal	Greece	1865818	42799	1312181	30950
Fertilizers	Belgium-Luxembourg	605720	23585	704444	28997
Trucks & Automobiles	Spain	5929	11908	9403	19026
Pig Iron	Spain	710661	24403	137272	16260
Clothes	Mongolia	1545	12535	1574	14686
Profile Metals	Iran	33081	5553	53216	12761
Bristles	Great Britain	430	7764	444	12317
Rags	United States	19145	7715	20836	10714
Flour	Mongolia	56353	9152	57632	9369
Crabs		3769	8801	4056	9246
Iron Ore	Czechoslovakia	25894	267	351489	9255
Asbestos	United States	26147	9118	27299	9143
Caviar		577	6073	431	8793
Sausage Casings	United States	692	5040	173	6038
Seed Cake (Flax, Cotton, Sunflower)		143976	16688	37910	5854

Recent Appointments

- N. M. Antselovich—Assistant President of the Commission of Soviet Control
- Khivali Babaev—President of the Central Executive Committee of the Turkmen SSR
- S. S. Dukelsky—President of the All-Union Committee on Cinema
- N. I. Ezhov—Commissar of Water Transport of the USSR
- F. H. Filippov—Head of the Statistical Administration of the State Planning Commission of the USSR
- S. Z. Ginsburg—President of the Committee on Construction
- L. M. Kaganovich—Commissar of Railways of the USSR
- Aitbai Khudaibergenov—President of the Council of People's Commissars of the Turkmen SSR
- A. F. Merekalov—Ambassador to Germany
- I. D. Papanin—First Assistant Chief of the Northern Sea Route Administration
- Munavar Shagadaev—President of the Central Executive Committee of the Tadzhik SSR
- S. E. Skrynnikov—Commissar of Agricultural Stocks of the USSR
- A. V. Terentev—Ambassador to Turkey

New Theatrical Productions

- Dabi, S., *Eugenie Grandet*. (Maly Filial Theatre)
Adapted from the novel of the same name by Balzac.
- Dobrizhinsky, *Ivan Bolotnikov*.
Play in free verse about the 17th century peasant uprisings against the Tsar.
- Gusev, Victor, *Friendship*. (Maly Theatre)
Play in free verse about the friendship of two Red Army colonels in border guard regiments and their love for the same girl.
- Korneichuk, Aleksandr, *Bogdan Khmel'nitsky*. (Kharkov State Dramatic Theatre)
- Mdivani, G., *Honor*. (Maly and Kamerny Theatres)
Georgian play included in the repertoires of two leading Moscow theatres.
- Naidenov, *The Children of Vaniushin*. (Maly Filial Theatre)
- Romashev, B., *Native Home*. (Maly Theatre)
- Shaw, G. Bernard, *Pygmalion*. (Theatre of the Revolution)
Translated by Potapenko and Lvovsky.
- Sheinin, L., and the Tur Brothers, *Face to Face*. (Kamerny Theatre)
Story of the campaign being waged against the foreign secret service agents in the USSR and their connections with "internal enemies."

- Shkvarkin, V., *Spring Review*. (Theatre of Satire)
 Tolstoi, Aleksei, *Peter I.* (Pushkin Theatre, Leningrad)
 Adapted by the author from the novel of the same name.
 Tolstoi, Leo, *The Living Corpse*. (TRAM)
 Vega, Lope de, *Fuente Ovekhuna*. (Theatre of the Revolution)
 17th century play depicting a peasant uprising against feudal lords.

New Plays for Children

- Bolshoi Ivan and His Four Brothers*. (State Puppet Theatre)
 Instructions in etiquette and hygiene.
 Daniel, M., *The Inventor and the Buffoon*. (Central Children's Theatre)
 Story of the Gutenberg printing press.
 Rozan, S., *Baba-Yaga*. (Central Children's Theatre)
 Adapted from an old folk tale.
 Talanov, *Mysterious Island*. (Moscow Theatre of the Young Spectator)
 Adapted from the Jules Verne story of the same name.
 Vladychin and Nechaev, *Tale of Ivaniushka and Vasilis the Beautiful*.
 (Third Moscow Theatre for Children)
 Volrad, A., *In Old England*. (Moscow Theatre of the Young Spectator)
 Story based on *Oliver Twist* and *David Copperfield* of Dickens.

New Operas and Ballets

- Asafev, B., *Prisoner of the Caucasus*. (Maly State Academic Opera Theatre, Leningrad)
 Ballet—story based on the poem of the same name by Pushkin.
 Glinka, M. I., *Ivan Susanin*. (Bolshoi Theatre)
 Opera—with a new libretto by S. Gorodetsky.
 Khodzhi-Einatov, *Revolt!* (Maly State Academic Opera Theatre, Leningrad)
 Opera—based on the novel of the same name by Furmanov.
 Kriukov, V., *The Station Master*.
 Opera—based on the story of the same name by Pushkin.
 Vainonen, V., and Y. Slonimsky, *Raimond*. (Leningrad Theatre of Opera and Ballet)
 Ballet.
 Voloshinov, V., *Fame*. (State Academic Theatre of Opera and Ballet)
 Opera—based on the play of the same name by Victor Gusev.
 Yurovsky, V., *Ballad of Opanas*. (Bolshoi Theatre)
 Opera—based on the poem of the same name by E. Bagritsky.
 Zhelobinsky, V., *Mother*. (Bolshoi Filial Theatre and Maly State Academic Opera Theatre, Leningrad)
 Opera—based on the play of the same name by Gorky.

NEWS CHRONOLOGY

Newspapers are named primarily for convenient reference, although the same items may appear in other newspapers. The date given is the date on which the event occurred, while the number in parentheses following the name of the newspaper indicates the date of the paper in which the report appeared.

*The texts of decrees, treaties, etc., referred to in the items marked with an asterisk are available in full at the office of the American Russian Institute.



INTERNAL NEWS

Administration

MARCH

- 1—A decision is issued by the Council of People's Commissars to improve the work of the Commission of Soviet Control.*—*Pravda* (1)

APRIL

- 5—Lazar M. Kaganovich is named to replace A. Bakulyn as Commissar of Railroads. Kaganovich will continue as Commissar of Heavy Industry.—*New York Times* (6)
- 8—N. Ezhov, Commissar of Internal Affairs, is also named Commissar of Water Transport, replacing N. I. Pakhomov.—*New York Herald Tribune* (9)
- 22—M. I. Tselishchev, Vice-Commissar of Heavy Industry, dies of overstrain.—*New York Times* (19)
- Regulations are issued for the elections in the RSFSR under the new constitution.*—*Izvestia* (22)

MAY

- 5—The election regulations for the RSFSR are published.*—*Pravda* (5)
- 8—Regulations for elections of Communist Party officials in the Moscow District are issued.*—*Izvestia* (8)
- 14—The social insurance budget for 1938 is published, amounting to more than 6 billion rubles.*—*Izvestia* (14)
- 16—Stalin is nominated for the Supreme Soviet of all 11 constituent republics of the USSR. He elects to run in a Moscow precinct.—*New York Times* (17)
- 18—It is announced that a 3 per cent, 20-year internal loan will be issued on June 1 amounting to 600 million rubles. This will be accompanied by a conversion of the loans for 1929, 1930, 1932 and 1935.—*Izvestia* (18)

Throughout the period, preparations were under way for the June elections in the Union Republics and the Autonomous Republics.

Agriculture

MARCH

- 21—An order is issued for the improvement of the production of potatoes in order to secure local self-sufficiency in every region of the USSR.—*Izvestia* (21)
- 23—The 1938 plan for the contraction of flax and hemp is announced.—*Izvestia* (23)

APRIL

- 20—A sharply worded decree signed by Stalin and Molotov orders a stop to the wholesale expulsions of peasants from collective farms. Violation of this decree is to be severely punishable by law.*—*New York Times* (21)
- Another decree calls for the allocation of a larger part of the collective farm income to individual members rather than to capital expenditures.*—*New York Times* (21)
- An order is issued by the Council of People's Commissars on the obligations and taxes to be imposed on individual farmers.*—*Izvestia* (21)
- 24—The Council of People's Commissars issues an order requiring prompt attention to appeals against expulsions from collective farms.*—*Izvestia* (24)
- 29—The Council of People's Commissars issues an order limiting the number of types of report which must be made by collective farms to 11 forms, with 3 extra for cotton and flax farms.*—*Pravda* (29)

MAY

- 15—Prediction is made of another bumper grain crop this year, exceeding that of last year.—*New York Times* (16)

Arctic

MARCH

- 18—The search for Levanevsky in Alaska is announced at an end. It is estimated that Sir Hubert Wilkins, working out from Aklavik, N. W. T., traversed a distance of approximately 9,000 miles over the Alaska mountains in the course of two weeks.—*New York Times and Herald Tribune* (3-19) (See *Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, April 15)
- 23—The members of the North Pole Drifting Station are given honorary titles and each is given 30,000 rubles bonus for their work. The ships which participated in their rescue are also rewarded.—*Izvestia* (23)
- 28—Three Soviet ships battle to rescue three other ships, locked in the ice of the Arctic Ocean, which have been adrift for five months.—*New York Times* (29)
- 29—The Northern Sea Route Administration is reprimanded for its unsatisfactory work, particularly for the number of transport ships and icebreakers that have met with mishaps in the winter ice. This organization has been the guiding factor in the establishment of the polar ice-floe station and for the trans-polar flights to the United States.—*New York Times* (30)

APRIL

- 5—A round trip flight from Moscow to the North Pole by Soviet aviators fails to reveal the whereabouts of Levanevsky and his party.—*New York Herald Tribune* (6)
- 15—The icebreaker "Lazar Kaganovich" is launched.—*Izvestia* (15)
- 26—Two icebreakers are being rushed to completion in order to go to the rescue of the ships ice-bound in the Arctic. These icebreakers are to be the largest in the world.—*New York Herald Tribune* (27)

- 29—After drifting for six months in three icebreakers caught in an ice pack in Arctic waters, 184 men, women and children are rescued by crews in three airplanes which land those rescued at Tikhii Bay.—*New York Herald Tribune* (30)

MAY

- 21—Papanin, leader of the group stationed for nine months on the Polar Ice-Floe Station, is made second in command to Otto Schmidt in the Northern Sea Route Administration.—*New York Herald Tribune* (22)

Art

MARCH

- 24—An All-Union Committee on Cinema is established under the Council of People's Commissars.*—*Pravda* (24) (See *Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, April 30)

APRIL

- 5-15—A festival of Azerbaidzhan art is held in Moscow.—*Pravda* (15) (See *Bulletin on Soviet Union*, May 30)
- 18—The Azerbaidzhan State Theatre of Opera and Ballet is awarded the Order of Lenin and the workers in the theatre are also honored.—*Pravda* (18)
- Kiev Conservatory is given the Order of Lenin on its 25th Anniversary.—*Pravda* (18)

MAY

- 10—The Moscow theatre MOSPS is renamed the Theatre in the name of the Moscow Soviet.—*Pravda* (10)
- 25—A meeting of the Academy of Sciences and the Union of Soviet Writers celebrates the 750th anniversary of the Russian epic *Slovo o Polku Igoreve*.—*Izvestia* (26)

Aviation

MARCH

- 26—Completion of tests on two military planes built for the Soviet Union by the Seversky Aircraft Corporation is announced. The ships are a long-range amphibian and a fast single-seater pursuit plane.—*New York Herald Tribune* (27)
- 29—The Soviet Union claims to have made the largest mass balloon flight when twenty-five balloons manned by 53 persons took off simultaneously.—*New York Times* (30)

APRIL

- 17—Osoaviakhim, the Civil Defense organization, is given complete charge over all sports aviation.—*Izvestia* (17)
- 18—A new glider record of 19 hours 08 minutes is established for a two-seater glider carrying a pilot and a passenger.—*Pravda* (18)

MAY

- 6—The summer services of the main airlines are opened.—*Pravda* (6)
- 19—Four are killed in an airplane crash; among them was M. S. Babushkin, noted flier who took part in rescue efforts for Nobile and Levanovsky.—*New York Times* (20)

Campaign Against Wrecking and Espionage

MARCH

- 2—The trial of twenty-one persons on charges of espionage on behalf of foreign countries, terrorism and murder opens in Moscow. N. Bukharin, G. Grinko, A. Rykov, G. Rakovsky, H. Yagoda and Rosengolts are among the accused.—*New York Herald Tribune* (3)
- 13—Eighteen of the defendants in the trial of the Rightist-Trotskyite Bloc are sentenced to death, three are given long prison sentences.—*New York Times* (15)
- The verbatim report of the court proceedings in the above trial is now available in book form in English.
- 18—N. V. Krylenko, former Commissar of Justice, is reported arrested.—*New York Times* (19)
- 29—Nineteen persons in Kazakhstan are reported executed on charges of treason, sabotage and espionage on behalf of foreign countries.—*New York Times* (30)

APRIL

- 10—Seven former officials of the Commissariat of Agriculture of the Tartar Republic are reported executed.—*New York Herald Tribune* (11)
- 24—The arrest of several church officials is announced, including that of one bishop, on charges involving espionage, treason and plotting to overthrow the Soviet Regime.—*New York Times* (25)

MAY

- 11—The newspaper *Bezbozhnik* reports the arrest of several clergymen in Leningrad on charges of fascist spying, debauchery and plotting against the Soviet regime.—*New York Times* (12)
- 26—Four persons are reported sentenced to death in Uzbekistan on charges of fascist terrorism.—*New York Herald Tribune* (27)
- 29—The former head of the Armenian Silk Trust is reported sentenced to death for wrecking in silk production at the behest of Japan and Italy.—*New York Times* (30)

Defense

APRIL

- 11—Editorials in *Pravda* and *Krasnaia Zvezda* point to the increased prestige and power of political officers in the Red Army whose duty it is to educate Red Army men in the ideology of the Soviet system.—*New York Times* (12)
- 13—An estimate of Soviet submarine strength by American naval officials places the number of Soviet submersibles at 150.—*New York Times* (14)
- 30—Removal of General P. E. Dybenko from his post as Commander of the Leningrad Military District is confirmed by the appearance of the signature of his successor.—*New York Times* (May 1)

MAY

- 1—The military section of the May Day Parade reveals military equipment of better quality than previously seen.—*New York Times* (2)
- 18—Commander of the Soviet Northern Fleet, K. I. Dushenov, announces that the naval base near Murmansk is strong enough to prevent blockading of the Soviet northern sea route in time of war.—*New York Herald Tribune* (19)

Education

MARCH

- 6—A decree is issued regulating the placing of graduates from the institutions of higher learning.*—*Izvestia* (6) (See *Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, May 15)

APRIL

- 12—An order is issued extending the amount of time for independent study for the students in institutions of higher learning; requiring that all students be marked on a basis of four grades—unsatisfactory, fair, good and excellent; eliminating periods of physical education in the middle of the school day.*
—*Izvestia* (12) (See *Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, May 15)

MAY

- 17—In a speech to the representatives of higher educational institutions, Stalin appeals to the youth of the country to assume active leadership in the field of science.—*New York Times* (20)

Science

MARCH

- 26—The Soviet expedition to the equator returns.—*Izvestia* (26)

APRIL

- 2—In Siberia, near the Yenissei River, the Academy of Sciences is reported investigating the place where a meteorite fell in 1908.—*New York Herald Tribune* (3)

MAY

- 15—The Moscow Institute of Epidemiology and Microbiology reports on the development of a serum for eliminating all symptoms of the common cold within 24 hours.—*New York Herald Tribune* (16)

Transportation

MARCH

- 13—The second line of the Moscow Subway is opened for trial runs.—*Izvestia* (14)
24—The Rubtsovka-Ridder railroad is completed.—*Pravda* (24)
28—The Council of People's Commissars issues an order to reorganize the Commissariat of Water Transport.*—*Izvestia* (28)

APRIL

- 17—Construction on the Kuban-Egorlyk Canal, joining the Kuban and Don Rivers, is started. The work will be finished in 1940.—*Izvestia* (17)

MAY

- 21—The navigation season on the Baltic-White Sea Canal opens.—*Izvestia* (21)
29—The completion of a streamlined locomotive capable of 110 miles an hour is announced.—*New York Times* (30)

Miscellaneous Internal News

MARCH

- 1—An order is issued on the production of gas generator autos and tractors.*—*Pravda* (1)
30—Rules are issued governing the elections of Communist Party functionaries.*
—*Izvestia* (30)
(Throughout April elections were held for Party functionaries.)

APRIL

- 1—N. Platonov, former Metropolitan in the *Living Church* in Leningrad, renounces the church and announces his adherence to Soviet doctrines.—*New York Times* (2)
- 2—Photo-telegraphic communications are opened between Moscow and Tbilisi.—*Pravda* (2)
- 10—The 1938 Trade Union budget amounts to more than 2 billion rubles.—*Pravda* (10)
- 21—Photo-telegraphic communications are opened between Moscow and Ordzhonikidze.—*Izvestia* (21)
- 23—It is reported that the churches in Moscow were filled to overflowing during the celebration of the Russian Easter.—*New York Times* (24)
- 24—The Council of People's Commissars issues an order to improve rural medical service.*—*Izvestia* (24)
- 28—The Council of People's Commissars issues an order to improve the organization of tax collections and insurance payments in the rural districts.*—*Izvestia* (28)
- 29—The Social Insurance Budget for 1938 is approved by the Council of People's Commissars.—*Pravda* (29)

MAY

- 5—Soviet Press Day is celebrated.—*Pravda* (5)
- 6—The All-Union Society of Inventors is liquidated and its functions turned over to the Central Council of Trade Unions.—*Izvestia* (6)
- 11—The plans for railroad construction in 1938 are announced.—*Izvestia* (11)
- 17—The Central Council of Trade Unions issues an order providing that 2 million children will go to summer camps.—*Industria* (17)
—Direct telephone connections are opened between Moscow and Frunze.—*Izvestia* (17)
- 22—It is announced that Aleksandra Artukhina is removed as leader of the Cotton Textile Workers Union for failure to set proper standards of production and wages.—*New York Herald Tribune* (23)
- 24—Plans for the construction of electric plants during 1938 are announced.—*Industria* (24)
—Five Stakhanovite workers are promoted to head positions in the Commissariat of Railways. Among them Krivonos, who initiated the movement among railroad workers, is made manager of the South-Donets R.R.—*Pravda* (24)



FOREIGN AFFAIRS

Consulates, Foreign in the USSR

MARCH

- 1—The Estonian and Danish consulates are to be closed.—*Pravda* (1)
- 5—Germany and the Soviet Union agree to close all their consulates on each other's territory.—*New York Times* (6)

- 9—Agreements are reached by the USSR with Iran, Latvia, and Sweden for closing most of their consulates.—*Izvestia* (9)
- 23—Foreign Minister Koki Hirota tells the Japanese Parliament that Tokyo will not close its consulate at Vladivostok, as requested by Soviet Russia.—*New York Herald Tribune* (24)

APRIL

- 20—Agreement is reached with Finland regarding the closing of consulates.—*Izvestia* (20)

MAY

- 2—Japan refuses to close its consulates in Khabarovsk and Blagoveshchensk in spite of a request by the Soviet Government.—*New York Times* (3)

Far Eastern Affairs

MARCH

- 5—A Tass correspondent in Tokyo is deprived of his office allegedly in reprisal for the eviction of the Domei News Agent from his office in Moscow.—*New York Times* (6)
- 8—Soviet Ambassador to Japan, M. Slavutsky, protests against the detention by the Japanese of two Soviet steamers and one mail plane.—*New York Herald Tribune* (9)
- 11—A Soviet dispatch announces that the Soviet Government is holding eight Japanese, earlier arrested as suspected spies, as hostages for two Soviet ships and crew held by the Japanese.—*New York Times* (12)
 - The Japanese on southern Sakhalin pass prison sentence on the captain of a Soviet ship, the *Vympel*, held by them since November 22.—*Pravda* (11)
- 27—Japan and Manchoukuo stop payments on the Chinese Eastern Railway.—*Industria* (27)

APRIL

- 4—Foreign Commissar Litvinov denies that the Soviet Union has sent troops into China to help against Japan.—*New York Herald Tribune* (5)
- 5—Litvinov has a conference with the Japanese Ambassador regarding a Soviet flier detained in Manchoukuo.—*Izvestia* (5)
- 7—The Japanese release the Soviet ship "Kuznetskstroï," after the captain pays a fine.—*Pravda* (9)
- 11—Soviets protest the alleged flight of eleven Japanese planes into Soviet territory. The pilot of one plane forced down is reported to have said that his plane belonged to a squadron of Japanese Army bombers in Korea.—*New York Herald Tribune* (19)
- 18—Japanese sources report the detention by Soviet officials of a Japanese plane forced down on Soviet territory.—*New York Times* (19)

MAY

- 16—The Soviet Government rejects the Japanese protest against a speech made by Commissar of the Navy Smirnov.—*New York Herald Tribune* (17)

Foreign Trade

MARCH

- 21—Soviet trade for 1937 shows a favorable balance of \$77,000,000.—*New York Times* (22) (See *Bulletin on the Soviet Union*, April 15)
22—Soviet exports to Spain are reported reduced for the last three months of 1937.—*New York Herald Tribune* (23)

United States, Affairs concerning

MARCH

- 24—It is announced that Serge Prokofieff will conduct the Boston Symphony Orchestra on March 25.—*New York Herald Tribune* (24)
26—Loy W. Henderson, First Secretary of the American Embassy at Moscow, is recalled to take up his duties in Washington.—*New York Herald Tribune* (27)
28—Alexander Kirk is named Counselor of the American Embassy at Moscow.—*New York Times* (29)

MAY

- 14—The Amtorg Trading Company reports that it was swindled out of \$22,000 worth of platinum and iridium in a transaction with a New York smelting and refining firm.—*New York Herald Tribune* (15)
15—It is announced that Ambassador Joseph E. Davies will tour Southern Russia before leaving the Soviet Union to take up his new post at Brussels.—*New York Times* (16)

MISCELLANEOUS FOREIGN AFFAIRS

FEBRUARY

- 26—The Soviet-Estonian Trade Agreement is signed.—*Pravda* (28)

MARCH

- 1—The German-Soviet Trade Agreement is extended for 1938.—*Pravda* (3)
15—The Soviet Union, under the terms of its pact with Czechoslovakia, reaffirms its willingness to come to its aid, if attacked.—*New York Herald Tribune* (16)
17—The Soviet Union, through Maxim M. Litvinov, proposes an immediate conference of leading powers, including the United States and England, but excluding Germany, Japan and Italy, to deal with the menace to peace presented by those nations engaged in acts of aggression.—*New York Times* (18)
19—Reports from Prague state that Czechoslovakia is warned by Germany to give up its pact with the Soviet Union as a condition for retaining German friendship.—*New York Herald Tribune* (20)

APRIL

- 3—M. Litvinov exchanges telegrams of greeting with the Minister of Foreign Relations of Rumania.—*Izvestia* (3)
6—F. F. Raskolnikov is recalled as Ambassador to Bulgaria.—*Pravda* (6)
11—An agreement is signed between Finland and the USSR regulating parcel post arrangements.—*Izvestia* (12)
16—An agreement is signed between Belgium and the USSR regulating parcel post.—*Izvestia* (17)
18—The Soviet-Greek trade agreement is concluded for 1938.—*Izvestia* (21)
28—A Protocol between the USSR and Finland is signed defining the border.—*Pravda* (30)

MAY

- 4—The Soviet Red Cross organizations send \$10,000 to Turkey for relief work in connection with a serious earthquake.—*Pravda* (4)
- 7—N. M. Shvernik, Secretary of the Central Council of Trade Unions, urges international cooperation for peace, in a speech before the meeting of the International Peace Movement in Geneva.—*Pravda* (12)
- 8—The Turkish government unanimously ratifies the Soviet-Turkish Trade Agreement.—*Izvestia* (8)
- 9—A Tass despatch states that Italy is the source for the anti-Soviet broadcasts in Russian which have been heard recently.—*New York Times* (10)
- 14—Soviet Russia abstains from voting on a resolution adopted in the League of Nations Council giving Switzerland freedom from the obligation to impose League penalties when other members do.—*New York Herald Tribune* (15)
- 18—It is reported that Soviet Russia demanded that France permit passage of arms to the Republican Government of Spain.—*New York Times* (19)
- 19—The general council of the International Federation of Trade Unions rejects the conditions proposed by Soviet trade unions for affiliation with the I.F.T.U.—*New York Times* (20)
- 26—Soviet representative in the Non-Intervention Committee votes against the British plan for the evacuation of foreign volunteers in Spain. The plan involves the establishment of two commissions to count the number of volunteers on both sides, following which a substantial withdrawal from each side would be made.—*New York Times* (27)
- 28—The USSR and Afghanistan sign an agreement for cooperation in combatting insect pests detrimental to cotton and other crops.—*Izvestia* (28)
- 31—The Soviet Government offers to pay her share of the expenses involved in the preliminary count of foreign volunteers in Spain, although it still refuses to contribute to the cost of the actual evacuation of the volunteers.—*New York Times* (June 1)

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